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ABSTRACT

This study aimed generally to survey and interpret, for social studies supervisors and curriculum directors, the findings of significant research and development during the last decade that bear on: 1) what and how social studies are taught to disadvantaged students; and, 2) social studies content concerning disadvantaged or deprived groups in American society. Particularly pertinent to the study was the close relationship with social studies for slow learners. Some 400 projects were identified through inquiries, published reports, and bibliographies. Of these, 120 projects were reviewed, 65 projects findings were abstracted and interpreted, and 15 were visited. Some of the major findings of the 65 were: 1) subject matter is appropriate when it is specific in nature and dealt with through the real-people approach; 2) successful content includes elements of law, political science, culture, and social issues; 3) recurrent ethnic study in several grades is effective; 4) either inductive or deductive methods can be used successfully; 5) multimedia approaches facilitate more learning; 6) some decision-making simulation games have been successful; 7) racially mixed classes promote greater knowledge and higher self concept; 8) there is some indication that teacher attitudes influence their success; and, 9) participation of teachers in curriculum development is favorably regarded. Some 170 pages of abstracts and references are appended; ED 037 588 is a related document. (Author/SBE)

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Social Studies and the Disadvantaged

TARGETED COMMUNICATION (INTERPRETIVE) STUDY of RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT

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Report to the
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SO 000 171

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January 31, 1970

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TARGETED COMMUNICATION (INTERPRETIVE) STUDY OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE DISADVANTAGED:
Phase One--Analysis and Implications

Jonathon C. McLendon, director
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Athens, Georgia

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Phase One--Analysis and Implications

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January 31, 1970

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Our thanks extend to the numerous project directors and other individuals who cooperatively furnished answers to sometimes repeated or seemingly unclear inquiries. Particularly several of those persons who authored the reports abstracted in this Study aided by providing further data or replying to inquiries about their reports. Many other people forthrightly gave useful recommendation of sources or reports, or helpfully frank indications that particular projects did not actually even if apparently bear on this study.

Special gratitude is due many of the Advisory Panel members, and especially the primary Targeted Audience representatives on that Panel, who supplied suggestions, reactions, and other guidance that frequently rechanneled the Staff's efforts toward realities of the settings in which educational ideas must be implemented if schooling is actually to progress.

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

Social and Educational Background

Status of the Disadvantaged in Social Studies

Purposes of This Study

General Nature of the Study

Major Findings of the Study

This Study comes at a time when Americans continue a long but now much intensified and massive confrontation with problems of disadvantaged or deprived groups in their society. The problems have varied and complex dimensions. Education seems a crucial key to improving the lot of the disadvantaged. Dealing with a basic area of the school's program, this Study anticipates continuing and expanded change in education with regard to the disadvantaged.

Social and Educational Background of the Study

Strong, dynamic, mostly new, and sometimes militant forces rose in American life as the latter half of the twentieth century opened. The U.S. Supreme Court sounded an omen in its historical decision of 1954 on racial segregation in schools. Despite some confusion, and even blocks to implementation, the growing forces soon began to impinge on educational policies and practices. By the early 1960's the federal administration had reached a stage of intense responsiveness to such increasingly urgent and demanding social trends, problems, and crises. Greater attention was both proffered to and urgently sought by several deprived or otherwise disconsolate groups. As many American youth sought greater freedom, privileges, and support to pursue their lives in patterns that they shape, so also did blacks and some other ethnic minorities more vigorously seek civil rights and economic advancement. Variously such groups and their sometimes divergent subgroups withdrew from, or drifted from the fringes of, or protested against--even to the point of occasionally violent outbreaks--the dominant, socially controlling elements of American Society.

In neighborhood and school, civic group and government, and through various other channels American society reacted. While some reaction was negative or restrictive toward the dissidents, the tenor of Americans generally became more permissive and sometimes supportive, at least to opening wider the doors to opportunity. Programs to extend a helping hand appeared under such optimistic labels as "Headstart" and "Upward Bound." New items in the federal budget provided both stimulus and wherewithal. New federal agencies undertook improvement of opportunities and means for disadvantaged ethnic groups, particularly blacks. Numerous social agencies, religious and other private groups, labor, and business responded increasingly, if at times moderately, to the challenge. The basic immensity and complexity of the problem, as well as some specific setbacks in the struggle for advancement, made progress difficult for those involved in the action and seemingly slow at best in the eyes of the disinterested observer. But there was progress despite serious obstacles and at times elusive or improbable aims or methods.

Aroused public opinion in considerable part opposed racial desegregation of schools, the further step of integration, and the offshoots of reactionary white backlash and of re-reactionary, black-initiated resegregation with control by blacks only. But Americans and their schools responded increasingly during the 1960's to instruction as well as admission and retention of disadvantaged students, a large proportion traditionally school dropouts. Federal guidelines accompanying the mid-decade Elementary and Secondary Education Act gave firm clues to fuller further application in many areas of support for education of a greatly heightened priority for schooling of the disadvantaged. Many among makers and beholders of public opinion, including action leaders of the disadvantaged, retained belief in that part of the American Dream that envisions individuals succeeding in life as a result of achievement in schooling.

Schools adapted rather rapidly (unusually quickly for schools) to the challenge of and support for resolving with children a social problem that adult society had yet failed to solve. Perhaps understandably, attempted improvements in schooling for the disadvantaged concentrated on more development of basic study skills, particularly in reading and sometimes arithmetic or other subjects. Special arrangements for teaching and learning, curriculum revision, teacher-training activities, instructional materials, and other efforts aimed to improve the education of the disadvantaged.

It is definitely too early for an inclusive and incisive assessment of the results, as is typical of experiments with human subjects under far from completely controlled conditions. In 1967 social psychologist James S. Coleman's appraisal team reported a massive amount of data in their study of Equality of Educational Opportunity. That report threw considerable doubt on the schools' ability, thus far demonstrated, to upgrade effectively the learning of children from continuingly repressive and depressing environments of the disadvantaged. Perhaps there was soundness and practicality in sociologist Ray Mack's charge a few months earlier that adult American society, seemingly unable to satisfactorily achieve desegregation, had "assigned the task to the children."

Status of the Disadvantaged in Social Studies

The decade of the 1960's seemed a period of great hope and promise for the social studies. Even as the decade opened there had already appeared forerunners of an advancing wave of change in a field that had seemed at times to lag in educational progress. Earlier attempts to strengthen teaching of mathematics, sciences, and foreign languages continued while rapidly expanding support for development of social studies emerged. Like curriculum projects in those other fields, the new efforts in social studies smacked of a favorite theme in American education since World War II: improve schooling by closing the gap between social studies (in elementary and secondary school programs) and the social sciences (in the realm of scholarly disciplines).

Some 3 dozen major curriculum projects and at least twice that number of more limited efforts attracted national attention in social studies during the 1960's. Uncounted numbers of additional attempts occurred at the local level. Before long the phrase "new social studies" gained currency, in time arousing reaction from some critics who troubled to find the seemingly self-same ideas and practices, if not the precise words and media, in education of decades and even generations ago. But change was underway--widely advocated, often planned, and actually undertaken in a number of schools.

The social studies more than any other area of the curriculum--certainly potentially and to some extent actually--have special opportunity and responsibility regarding the deprived. For social studies teachers teach about as well as to the disadvantaged. Logically then, one might have expected the social studies component of schooling to have risen early and fully to the challenge of new emphasis on the education of and about the deprived. But this has not happened; indeed, the social studies have lagged.

It was 1969 before any book-size publication appeared on social studies and the disadvantaged, in the current sense. Not a one of the forty-some major social studies curriculum projects focused primarily on either disadvantaged students or curriculum content concerning disadvantaged peoples. Many hundreds of special institutes, workshops, and programs sought to improve teachers; but only a handful dealt mainly with the disadvantaged.

Social studies teachers organizations seemed to respond slowly. Their only national association remained, at the end of the decade, preoccupied chiefly with matters other than social studies and the disadvantaged. One issue of its monthly journal had stressed the problem; none of its other publications pertained at all significantly. By 1968 the national convention programs began to reflect awareness of the problem; but no major thrust was made through this channel. Some state councils for social studies paid more attention to the problem; but others gave it short shrift. There seemed little evidence, as the 1960's ended, that national professional leadership in social studies was coming to grips with the problem, much less guiding teachers toward hopeful means of coping with it.

Despite such limitations, interest in the disadvantaged grew among teachers and leaders in the field of social studies. Efforts to improve the contributions of social studies to the disadvantaged were sporadic, uneven, and often homemade; but efforts were undertaken in many school systems. The previous efforts lacked precedents or patterns to guide their practice. But it is important to recognize that lack of precedents did not deter those who were most eager, willing, or desirous of meeting the problem.

During the past five years, and especially during the past two or three, results of efforts to improve social studies regarding the disadvantaged have appeared in growing and significant numbers. While not all of the projects have achieved success, their reporting has provided a cumulation of reports that can usefully guide school practices. But the availability of such guidance depends on inventorying, analyzing, and interpreting the results of pertinent projects. It is that task to which this Study is devoted.

Purposes of This Study

This Study aims generally to interpret, for curriculum decision makers, significant research and development during the past decade that bears on social studies and the disadvantaged. Accomplishment of this general purpose involves several more specific objectives:

1. To extract and interpret major findings of research in psychology and sociology that bear on social studies and the disadvantaged.
2. To identify the pertinent research studies, curriculum development projects, experimental school programs, and other innovative efforts that have gathered and analyzed data as a basis for their findings.
3. To analyze the reports of research and development, and to synthesize their findings into a presentation suitable for the Targeted Audiences.
4. To interpret the findings reported by research and development projects in ways that may most directly guide curriculum decision making for elementary and secondary school social studies.
5. To recommend effective practices relatable to identifiable components of schooling, planning or revision of curriculum and instruction, and professional development related to social studies and the disadvantaged.
6. To report limitations, dangers, and difficulties that reports of research and development have made evident in attempting to improve social studies with regard to the disadvantaged.

7. To recommend further dissemination of research and development needed in relation to social studies and the disadvantaged, including recommendation of: selected projects for furnishing information to, and sites for visitation by, the Targeted Audiences; dissemination of the present Study; and further research and interpretive study needed for development and implementation of improved social studies programs regarding the disadvantaged.

General Nature of the Study

This Study involves basically the process of finding, putting together, and interpreting for Targeted Audiences, the results of research and development related to social studies and the disadvantaged. It is of central importance, to comprehending the purposes and nature of the Study, to recognize its focus on research and development. The Study Staff sought the data, that it was to analyze and interpret, in reports of pertinent educational projects. By terms of the Study proposal, the Staff focused on projects that reported tangible data concerning one or more aspects of social studies and the disadvantaged. This standard excluded a number of projects that seemed pertinent but that reported only loosely gathered opinions or impressions concerning their supposed results. Thus a specifically unknown but clearly large number of projects were excluded from attention in this Study. Such a "hard-nose" approach may have omitted some valuable projects, but there is no way of knowing their value if they did not evaluate and report tangibly their results.

Another key feature of the Study is its involvement of social studies both for and about the disadvantaged. The social studies, more than any other area of the school program, not only are taught to disadvantaged students but also potentially and often actually include a notable amount of subject matter concerning disadvantaged peoples. It was therefore considered essential, in assessing and developing recommendations for social studies and the disadvantaged, to survey and interpret findings from (1) studies that report on what and how social studies are taught to disadvantaged students, and (2) studies that report on social studies content concerning disadvantaged or deprived groups in American society.

No matter how research and development are organized, there is frequent overlap among related areas. Particularly pertinent in this Study is the close relationship between social studies for the disadvantaged and for slow learners or academically below-average students. The Staff tried conscientiously to choose discriminatingly, but in several cases the project reports leave open the question of whether their "slow learners" are chiefly economically deprived or culturally disadvantaged students. In any case these groups have several but not altogether similar traits. Many of the disadvantaged are slow learners, and many slow learners are disadvantaged.

No matter how research findings are organized, too, there is some overlap among major parts. The elements of curriculum, instruction and professional development--used here as organizers--do highly interrelate. They were chosen because they are constant concerns, sometimes together and sometimes distinctly, of the Study's Targeted Audiences: curriculum decision makers. In various ways characteristics of the Targeted Audiences affected the Study. The Staff was mindful especially of the primary audience: social studies supervisors and curriculum directors. In selecting projects, abstracting data reports, interpreting the findings, and in other ways the known interests of the Targeted Audiences were prime guides. If the Study had been targeted directly at teachers, for example, the emphases and specific contents of the Report would have been considerably different.

How this Study functioned as a research reviewing and interpreting activity is described more fully in the Appendix. Here the main steps taken are summarized briefly. They appear here in the order in which they were begun; but the varying time periods for the indicated activities necessarily overlapped.

1. Source Identification. A Source File--listing both publications or reports and projects, organizations, or agencies that seemed likely to furnish pertinent information--was expanded far beyond the extent that had been achieved during preparation of the proposal for the Study.

2. Advisory Panel Meeting. Arrangements were completed, and a two-day Work Conference of the Study's Advisory Panel was held. The Panel included representative leaders among social science educators, state and local school system supervisors or curriculum directors in social studies, general curriculum coordinators or supervisors in local school systems, directors and leaders in other agencies of social studies curriculum development projects--all of them with some definite record of activity involving social studies and the disadvantaged. At the Conference, Panel members raised questions, explored possibilities, and offered useful suggestions regarding the conduct of the Study.

3. Contacts with Sources. Inquiries were sent to more than 500 sources--including individuals, agencies (among them, three offices in each state department of education), projects, publishing companies, OE Regional Laboratories, and OE Research Development Centers. Replies were received from about 190 of these sources. Variously the sources sent reports or other materials, recommended reports or other sources, or indicated that they had and knew of nothing pertinent to report. Some usable reports were received from each type of source except publishers of educational materials, who, perhaps understandably in their competitive business, refrained from making available data related to the tryout of instructional material they had published or were preparing for publication. In addition, appropriate library bibliographies

were thoroughly checked for listing of published reports and other documents. Most helpful among the bibliographies checked were Research in Education, Dissertation Abstracts, and Education Index.

4. Refinement of Scope and Criteria. On the basis of recommendations from the Advisory Panel and of preliminary analysis of pertinent project reports, the Study Staff refined the originally proposed criteria for selecting sources, those for selecting reports, and those for abstracting reports. In general, the criteria were made more specific and practical. The Staff also pinpointed the scope of the Study, in regard especially to the range of aspects of social studies and the disadvantaged to be included in the Study.

5. Preparation of Abstracts. As sufficient numbers of library documents were identified and of materials requested or ordered were received, the Staff began abstracting appropriate reports. Meeting concurrently and communicating informally, the Staff coordinated its abstracting procedures. In numerous cases what at first seemed appropriate material turned out not to be so and was discarded. In time, some seventy selected reports were abstracted.

6. Preparation of Study Report. When a majority of the abstracts were completed, attention turned to organizing and interpreting the findings. Staff members developed three varying drafts outlining approaches to presentation of the basic content of the Report. Ultimately an approach designed to relate most fully to the primary Targeted Audience was tentatively adopted. It, together with samples of abstracts and preliminary, partial drafts of interpretive sections, were presented to a small committee representing the primary Targeted Audience: state and local social studies supervisors or curriculum coordinators. That committee, consisting of three Advisory Panel members, met with the Staff and the USOE Monitor for the Study at a twenty-four-hour conference. This group considered the material presented, characteristics desired in the Report, relatable needs of the Targeted Audiences, and varying ways in which the Report and the Study might be disseminated.

7. Completion and Evaluation of Study Report. Following the meeting with the Target Audience representatives, the Staff adapted its plans to a number of their suggestions and proceeded to draft a Preliminary Report to the U.S. Office of Education. Suggested modifications were made insofar as practicable, and the Final Report was submitted to the supporting agency. Meanwhile outside evaluation of the Report was accomplished by two staff members of the Center for Educational Change, located at the University of Kentucky.

8. Site Visits. Limited site visits to selected projects were undertaken during preparation of the Report. Aided by an extension of the Study period, most of these visits were postponed until

after the bulk of the Report had been submitted. Fifteen sites were chosen from more than thirty that the analysis of data reports had indicated likely appropriate, followed by correspondence to determine the most relevant sites. Criteria emphasized the value of the sites as either research/developmental projects or dissemination/implementation activities plus the potential value of a site for prospective visits by Targeted Audiences seeking guidance in improving school programs. Additional projects were recommended as furnishing helpful materials or information by correspondence or telephone contact.

9. Plans for Dissemination. Though considered during earlier stages, plans for dissemination of this Study were not fully developed until the Report had been submitted. One line of planned dissemination is through publication of the Report, or various portions of it, plus articles, addresses, and consultation with school systems based on the Study's findings and recommendations. Another line of proposed dissemination includes conferences for representatives of the Targeted Audiences: a southeastern area conference co-sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies, a southern regional meeting through the annual Southern States Work Conference, an annual Conference of State Social Studies Specialists (key members of the primary Targeted Audience), and a series of urban-area conferences for diverse representatives of the Targeted Audiences in thirty-two key urban centers across the nation.

Major Findings

The chief conclusions and recommendations to emerge from this Study include the following, grouped by key elements of the social studies to which they relate.

The conclusions and recommendations reported here generally complement each other. There are, however, some variations, due partly to selection by the researchers and developers on whose project reports this Study is based. Their choices relate to what they perceive as desirable areas of research and development plus the practical limitations of inevitably insufficient resources to meet fully ambitious goals. Some desirable practices and materials are not reported here simply because they were not investigated by project personnel during the past ten years. Additional variations in this Study derive from the fact that a different individual authored each section of the Report. Inevitably interpretations are influenced, that is both strengthened and limited, by differences in the background and outlook of the interpreters.

The brief, generalized statements that follow may seem to say, to those who do not examine the underlying detail in the Report, that "almost anything works." It is crucial, therefore, that those directly involved in curriculum decisions look beyond the headlines. Such an approach requires careful examination of the bases for the conclusions and recommendations here as well specific study of key elements in the local situation to which the Report may or may partly apply.

Findings bearing on curriculum:

1. Both history and other social sciences furnish appropriate subject matter for and about disadvantaged. For disadvantaged students, content is more learnable when at an appropriate level of comprehension, when specific in nature and limited in scope, when dealt with in depth, and when directly related to the present or a "real-people" approach to the past.

2. Either distinctive or combined subjects, including combinations beyond as well as within social studies, may be effective in teaching the disadvantaged. Relatively difficult concepts, from a discipline or interdisciplinary, may be learned by disadvantaged students if the teacher, instructional materials, and approach are suited to the students.

3. Newly emphasized and apparently successful social studies content for and about disadvantaged includes chiefly elements of law, political science, culture, and social issues (especially civil rights).

4. Teaching about the student's ethnic group predictably results in more favorable attitudes toward it. Results vary among different localities and ethnic groups. The disadvantaged sometimes feel more negatively toward others than others to toward them.

5. Content about disadvantaged groups needs to be presented to other groups "soft-sell" rather than "hard-sell" if more favorable attitudes towards the disadvantaged are to result.

6. Results of teaching about either one's own or other ethnic groups vary among different localities and among different ethnic groups. Each situation needs careful appraisal as a basis for developing a desirable curriculum.

7. "One-shot" approaches are generally inferior to a curriculum that provides for recurrent ethnic group study in several grades.

Findings bearing on instruction:

1. Either inductive or deductive strategies (or methods) can be used successfully in teaching the disadvantaged. Emphasis in research and development during the past few years has been on inductive approaches stressing open-ended questioning, discovery from first-hand sources of information, and skills of critical and reflective thinking. Learning of "pat" or fixed answers is discouraged. But carefully structured and presented material can be learned by students from culturally limited backgrounds.

2. Multiactivity approaches have clearly more successful results than those limited to only one or two types of learning activities. Overt activity and interaction among students, and with the teacher, seem necessary ingredients of such instruction. Practically all reported successful approaches, as well as some less favored ones, include discussion activities.

3. Multimedia facilitate more learning than do only one or two types of material. Any particular learning resource seems to need complementing by use of other types as well.

4. Textbooks are apparently less effective than tradebooks in achievement of both knowledge and attitude change both by disadvantaged students and, for others, about the disadvantaged.

5. Some simulation (decision-making) games have been successfully used with disadvantaged students. Results, while apparently promising, are based on limited experimentation.

6. The type of material used seems to influence learning less than does the specific content of whatever media are employed.

7. School organization appears unrelated to students' learning in social studies except as it involves grouping of students. Especially for disadvantaged learners, greater knowledge and higher self-concept result from placement in racially mixed classes.

Findings bearing on professional development:

1. Teachers vary widely in success in teaching social studies for or about the disadvantaged. Insufficient evidence is available to identify differences in basic characteristics of successful and unsuccessful teachers.

2. There is some indication that teachers' attitudes toward the disadvantaged influences their success in teaching them and in teaching about disadvantaged groups. But an incompletely known variety of other factors also affect their students' learning in these situations. At least sometimes pertinent teachers' opinions appear more based on the specific situation than on general values or basic beliefs.

3. Both project leaders and experimental teachers agree that a distinctive amount of teacher training is desirable in introducing new social studies materials, approaches, methods, or curriculum content for or about the disadvantaged. No generally preferable form, type, or extent of training has been revealed. Often, however, those who are involved feel that more training should have been provided.

4. Practically no research and development projects, involving preservice teacher training in social studies for or about the

disadvantaged, have reported data regarding their programs.

5. Participation by teachers in social studies curriculum development for or about disadvantaged is favorably regarded by most of those who have participated. It is sometimes formally, and in any case can be, also a form of in-service training. Most successful among the projects including teacher-developed curriculum were those that lasted long enough for tryout and revision, and that utilized consultant service.

6. Less extensive teacher participation characterized a number of projects with their curriculums already planned but involving teachers in instructional planning with specific time allocated for it. Teacher attitudes were favorable, but the effects on their students' learning are not relatable on the basis of data reported.

Chapter Two

CURRICULUM

History and Social Science Disciplines

Interdisciplinary Approaches

Combining Social Studies and Other School Subjects

Affective and Cognitive Elements

Implications of Research and Recommendations for Social Studies Curriculum Revisions and Development

Recently concern has mounted for developing social studies curricula to teach students about the present role, status, and historical contributions of the disadvantaged in our society. Development of social studies for disadvantaged students appears, however, an extension of concern for many of the types of students once labelled "slow" learners. Various characteristics now associated with disadvantaged learners previously have been ascribed to slow learners--low level cognitive performance (acquisition of knowledge and thinking skills), lack of interest in school, comparatively weak self-concept, and similar "low-ranking" traits. Thus frequently debated questions regarding slow learners or low level achievers reappear in discussions of structure and organization of the curriculum for disadvantaged.

Should a curriculum based upon a different conceptual organization be developed especially for disadvantaged students? If so, should educators attempt to teach these students less, that is "cover" fewer topics, deal with fewer concepts, or omit many details? If not, are compensatory or remedial programs needed to help disadvantaged students phase into the regular social studies curriculum? Or can these students be taught to achieve at a rate commensurate with their ability, at the same time achieving program objectives of the established or traditional curriculum by adjusting of teaching strategies or materials?

This chapter will deal with those questions except the last, which is a major consideration of Chapter Three. In addition, the Chapter interprets attempts to develop curricula to teach both the disadvantaged and others about disadvantaged groups in our society. These programs frequently have both cognitive (knowledge) and an affective (attitudes and values) dimensions with the chief but sometimes unstated aim of effecting attitude changes toward a more positive self-image and greater feelings of efficacy on the part of the disadvantaged. Some attempts seek, for more advantaged students, greater empathy, more positive attitudes toward "out-groups" and greater willingness and increased actions toward the goal of a more fully integrated society. It would provide greater equality of opportunity to achieve in reality what Gunnar Myrdal called, and what is more generally recognized as, the "American Creed."

Curriculum: History and Social Science Disciplines

Some experimentation, research, and innovation have involved a single social science discipline or social studies course. The major objective may be a straightforward attempt to increase students' learning in a subject. Usually in such cases, information increment is sought (Edgar, 1966; Wilson, 1967) but occasionally the objective is higher level cognitive learning involving analysis, application, synthesis, and evaluation (Muller, 1969). And frequently the learning of historic or social science information and methodological procedures are used as a vehicle for bringing about attitude changes or other affective learning (Muller, 1969; Dow, 1969; Ashbaugh, 1967; Jones, 1965; Estes, 1966).

History. Most experimentation dealing with single disciplines has focused on history, particularly American history. Undoubtedly its standard offering in the fifth, eighth, and eleventh grades of spiral within the traditional curriculum helps to account for this, but the demands to give more attention to the historical contributions and contemporary status of minority groups, especially those groups toward which discrimination has and continues to be directed, and from whose ranks a disproportionate number of disadvantaged students come to our public schools can probably be most widely met within the traditional framework in American history programs. No doubt, too, the wide array of printed materials and audio-visual media facilitate attempted innovation. Hence, modifications of traditional curricula content or emphases can be achieved with minimum teacher in-service training and curriculum-revision efforts.

The most prevalent innovation in social studies curriculum where history is the central or only discipline from which course content is drawn is the expansion of the scope of American history programs to include study of minority group contributions, status, and leaders. Most particularly this has centered on the history of Negroes in the United States. Changes in teaching materials, spearheaded by the demands to include more attention to minorities in textbooks, appear to represent the bulk of efforts at modification. And here as in every other phase of research and experimentation related to social studies and the disadvantaged, precious little has been undertaken. A recent survey conducted by USOE (Goff, 1969) indicates that just over one-half of the state departments of education had any type of material for teachers to provide guidelines for teaching about Negro history, and only a few additional states were planning or producing materials. None provided course outlines. Thus, here, as in many other instances the responsibility rests with local systems. Usually Negro history is integrated with already-established programs at particular school or grade levels, although in the senior high school, especially at grade twelve, separate courses have been established.

One approach to including Negro history in the social studies curriculum is to develop short units or depth studies to be built into particular courses or grade levels (Edgar, 1966; Georgeoff, 1967; T. Smith, 1967). The success of such an approach depends heavily, as often found, on teacher readiness and competence to teach the new content which may require new materials and perhaps new teaching procedures as well. When Smith attempted to insert Negro history content (and historical methodology) at each grade level one-six, she found that while teachers asked for daily lesson plans to guide their teaching, they varied considerably in actually utilizing the "suggested teaching processes." Not only did they lack proficiency in using the suggested teaching skills, but their reactions ranged from apathy to hesitancy, to even resentment at being involved in the attempted innovations. Involving teachers in planning for the innovation and making them aware of the research objectives and design help to maximize chances for success (Georgeoff,1967; Ashbaugh, 1967; Muller, 1969). Indeed, the researcher may then be confronted with the well known "Hawthorne" or "halo" effect (Dooley, 1968), wherein the participants in the study perform at a higher level than they normally would simply because of involvement in an experiment

The attitudes, anxieties and fears possessed by individual teachers can significantly affect student learning regardless of teacher involvement in planning and implementing new curricula designed to foster better self-concepts and racial understanding, and the effect is not necessarily in the direction expected. For example, Georgeoff found that participating Negro teachers in Gary, Indiana were more reluctant and less forcefull and directive than white teachers in teaching an experimental unit of study on American Negro history. This reluctance stemmed from the Negro teachers' fear of white-parent hostility.

When course content is extended to include new information about Negro leaders and the significance of their leadership roles, it does not adversely affect disadvantaged students' performance on more traditional achievement tests (Edgar, 1966; Muller, 1969). In fact, overall achievement in social studies may be enhanced (Muller, 1969). But usually the change in content is accompanied by the use of a greater variety of media and teaching approaches. In such cases it should not be concluded that Negro or black or other minority group history alone will cause students to see social studies as more relevant and to achieve greater knowledge gains.

Relevance, like beauty, lies in the eye of the beholder. What is perceived as relevant by one student or by a group otherwise similar may nevertheless vary greatly. And selective retention is apparently related to selective perception. For although students of different ethnic or racial backgrounds can learn historical information about American Negroes when incorporated into a specially-designed program (Edgar; Georgeoff) students of a particular racial or ethnic group tend to score better on questions relating to role, contributions, and status of their own group as compared to other groups (Gustafson, 1957). What students retain after a fairly extensive time-lapse subsequent to instruction depends at least partly, on previously held attitudes. Readiness to learn about others and to retain what is learned, then, varies among individuals not only in relation to intelligence, achievement, and other individual characteristics, but also by membership in particular ethnic, social, or other subgroups within the society. Of particular importance is Gustafson's finding that members of "the dominant white majority" (her classification) showed greater readiness to learn about others than did minority cultural groups.

In somewhat similar, but much more extensive research linked to a fifth-grade curriculum project (Brzeinski, 1968) selective perception in learning about the historic and cultural contributions of minority groups again was a factor, and again "anglo" (white) students achieved greater gains in learning about others than did Negro or Hispanic (Spanish-speaking and Latin American cultural background) students, but achievement varied from group to group according to the particular combination of media and teaching procedures included. As with other studies, despite the generally consistent knowledge gains, attitude changes were more variable. Again there was a tendency for a particular ethnic or racial group to have a better image of itself than other groups did. Here, too, specific combinations of media and teaching varied more widely in their effect on affective learning than on cognitive learning.

Neither of these studies controlled for socio-economic status differences among students. In research where this factor was considered (Fisher, 1965), both race and socio-economic status appeared to affect attitude change. Fifth-grade middle-class Negro students, as a group, exhibited significantly more positive attitude change toward American Indians than did middle-class Caucasian students when content about Indians was built into the social studies curriculum. While this appears to contradict previously cited studies, they are not strictly comparable. Other research has shown lower-status whites compared to middle-status whites are less positive in their attitudes toward minorities. Various minority group members may similarly vary in their attitudes. If replication of this type research produces similar findings then the difficulty of developing a social studies curriculum model for all students from different racial, ethnic, and perhaps socio-economic background may be insurmountable.

Another dimension of the curricular interaction between affective and cognitive learning, or attitudes and values and the acquisition of knowledge and thinking skills, was evident in the experimentation carried out by the schools in Vallejo, California (Muller, 1969). In this instance teachers and project personnel planned new programs for grades five, eight, and eleven basing their curriculum development on concepts identified by Price, Hickman and Smith in Major Concepts for the Social Studies and focusing on integrating contributions and history of minority social groups into the traditional American history curriculum at these grade levels. Working with an integrated school population it was possible to attain significant knowledge gains and critical thinking skills gains, but commensurate changes in actual intergroup behavior did not follow. In fact, while behavior for some students was changed in a positive direction, for most there was no change recorded, and in some cases, a decline in intergroup contacts was noted. Corresponding to research in related fields such as that of Easton, Hess and Torney in political socialization, the Vallejo project found that less change was achieved in the affective domain along with lesser knowledge gains at the senior high school level. This was supported by teacher reactions to the success of the program which stratified along grade lines: fifth-grade teachers expressing the greatest satisfaction with the program and the eleventh-grade teachers the least. Additional support that positive attitudes can be developed toward particular disadvantaged groups by elementary students by specifically including "positive" content about the group is found in the Fisher study previously noted. In addition with children of this age, changes in attitudes apparently can be achieved without concomitant information gains.

Programs such as the Vallejo S3C2 project are designed both to be used with disadvantaged students and to teach others about disadvantaged. Other efforts have been directed at designing curricula exclusively for use with disadvantaged students. Reading deficiency among disadvantaged students has been a major characteristic found in the descriptive literature. Calls for history curricula that include materials with high interest and low readability requirements have bombarded school administrators, supervisors, project directors and publishers for years. One approach, and perhaps the most pervasive one, is the attempt to maintain the traditional curriculum framework while cutting back on the volume and level of the reading component (Uphoff, 1967). Follett Publishing Company has been one of the companies particularly associated with this approach. Recent research involving the use of its programs in American and world history courses is not conclusive. In one instance, (Wilson, 1967) the use of the Follett Program with eleventh-grade low-IQ, poor-achievers enrolled in American history brought only mixed achievement results (some students actually regressed) on standardized tests after one year of instruction. This, despite the fact that teachers reported satisfactory performance of students in class and on teacher-designated tests. A second study (Baines, 1968) conducted with tenth-graders in world history recorded significant achievement gains for students using the Follett program, but a wide array of other media were also used along with the basic program materials, and denied to the control group. That the gains can be attributed to the basic Follett program is unwarranted.

Other publishers have joined this effort, among them Laidlaw Company. In this instance a more traditional textbook approach is used but the reading level is revised one or more grade levels below the standard text. In a study using Laidlaw's junior high text for slow readers written at a fifth-grade reading level (The Story of America), no improvement in student performance among seventh-grade inner-city slow readers was achieved (Guysenir, 1969). In all three of these research efforts, the basic history content remained in line with traditional practices.

This, apparently, is characteristic of secondary school social studies and not just history programs for low achievers. When school systems have developed their own printed materials to meet their particular circumstances rather than adopting commercially available reading material, and particularly where audio-visual materials are also utilized, greater satisfaction with the program is reported (Uphoff).

The interrelationship of content, media and instructional procedures is obvious in a great deal of the reported research. Negative results in substituting reading materials for traditional texts led one research team (Guysenir) to conclude first, adoption and use of new social studies texts, with more appropriate reading levels, was not the answer, that basically negative attitudes toward learning among disadvantaged inner-city students had to be changed first. Second, a whole array of teaching materials and procedures is needed. Finally they concluded, curriculum should focus on the present, and on people and their actions. The first two points are supported by other research. Evidence for the last one is less clear, but is indicative of one trend in the social studies generally and social studies for the disadvantaged specifically: the deemphasis of history in the curriculum.

Some of the criticism leveled against the history component of social studies programs for disadvantaged students is supported by research indicating that for these students, even at the upper elementary level, the development of the sense of time and chronology is more difficult than for advantaged students (Foerster, 1968). The development of time concepts among advantagd students seems, at least in part, to be related to their greater verbal ability. If then, disadvantaged students are expected to deal successfully with historical content emphasizing time and chronology, as so often is the case in many social studies programs beginning as early as the fourth grade, special materials and media as well as carefully sequenced instruction at the elementary level are clearly needed. (For suggestions along this line see Helen

M. Carpenter, editor, Skill Development in the Social Studies, Thirty-third NCSS Yearbook, 1963). But as some critics have argued, regardless of whether time concepts can be learned, the cost in effort and time is not worth it. This question of priorities must be considered by those responsible for social studies curriculum decisions, particularly when considering maintaining or including historical content in an elementary program. For other research has indicated that the inclusion of graphic representations such as time-lines in texts, and other visual aids will not necessarily bring greater learning even for advantaged students.

When historical content is included for disadvantaged students, it would seem most appropriate to stress developments, changes, ideas, personalities, and issues that give a here-and-now quality to the students' study rather than the when-did-it-happen and in-what-order quality typical of some courses and programs.

Social Sciences. One of the major trends in social studies education is the inclusion of social science content, concepts and methodology earlier, even in the beginning years of students' school experience. Frequently the "new social studies" deal with people or processes apparently far removed from the disadvantaged students' world of reality. Some critics of the new social studies therefore have argued that while the development of curricula along these lines might be appropriate for many students, it is not appropriate for disadvantaged students for a reason similar to that cited in support of the call for deemphasizing history: a lack of here-and-now orientation. Additionally, language and reading skills development, attainment of mathematical concepts, and arithmetical computation skills and other learnings have been cited as having priority. But it can be argued that precisely because heretofore excluded background knowledge disadvantagement, that opportunity for educational success is more equalized since cognitive development is not so much related to previous non-school learning. This appears to be particularly evident with anthropology curricula designed for elementary students. Disadvantaged children even at the kindergarten level as well as those enrolled in higher elementary grades can learn structured anthropology content and sometimes at rates equal to those for more advantaged students when using the essentially didactic strategies employed in Marion Rice's Anthropology Curriculum Project (Greene, 1966; Thomas, 1967; Hunt, 1969). In Rice's project heavy emphasis is placed upon attainment of and ability to use vocabulary associated with social science. The instruction is designed in units of fairly short duration (three to six weeks) for sequential development at succeeding grade levels. Other instructional strategies can also be utilized to achieve anthropological learnings. Disadvantaged fifth-grade students are able to learn conceptually-oriented material at a rate similar to that for more advantaged peers when a variety of media and activities are provided in an essentially inductive and student-centered program. Student reactions to this nearly full-year course, Educational Development Center's, Man: A Course of Study, differ little regardless of thether they are from inner-city or more advantaged suburban communities. Correspondingly, teachers report favorably on the course's impact on less-able students.

Young disadvantaged students are also able to understand sophisticated economic concepts at least at some low level of abstraction. Comparing three experimental programs with a traditional social studies program for first grade, Spears (1967) found that after seventeen weeks of instruction all three experimental groups outperformed those students in the traditional program. The three experimental programs included (1) a revision of the traditional program; (2) a pilot program DEEP, developed by the Joint Council on Economic Education; and (3) Our Working World: Families at Work developed by Lawrence Senesh. None of the programs appeared to be superior to the others as measured by student performance. And while the students enrolled in the programs did achieve knowledge gains, they apparently were unable to apply their new knowledge with much greater ability than those students in the regular program. The first-grade classes in Spears study included middle and lower socio-economic status students. And not surprisingly, he found that the middle class students outperformed the lower status students.

Without differentiating socio-economic status, Larkins (1968) found that first-graders scoring at least six months below grade norms on ability tests still could achieve significant gains in learning some of the concepts in the Senesh Families at Work program. And in other experiment at the fourth-grade level with rural disadvantaged students, Dooley, (1968) reports success using two different experimental programs: Our Working World: Cities at Work (the Senesh program originally designed for third-grade) and Elementary School Economics I (authored by German and others, for Willian Rader's University of Chicago, Industrial Relations Center project). Dooley classifies the Senesh program as deductive or information-providing and the Rader program as inductive or question-raising. Students enrolled in both programs scored learning gains, but those in the Rader program did significantly better on an economics achievement test than did those in the Senesh program. Whether this results from the teaching strategies employed is not certain and the programs are not strictly comparable. Nevertheless, the evidence points to the tentative conclusion that economics as well as anthropology can be incorporated into the social studies curriculum for disadvantaged students.

Geography, unlike anthropology and economics, has had a much longer tenure in social studies curricula. But relatively little research dealing with disadvantaged students' ability to learn geographic concepts, information and skills has been attempted to date. Earlier studies, without distinguishing between disadvantaged and other youth, have shown that young children's interest in and even knowledge about people and places far removed in time and space was much greater than educators and others had thought. More recently, in a study of disadvantaged kindergarten children's understanding of earth-sun relationships, directions, spatial relationships, and other geographic knowledge, Portugaly (1967) found that disadvantaged Negro inner-city students could at this early age, develop basic geographic concepts when manipulative activities for them were carefully selected and sequenced. She also found that these students could successfully use some basic tools of the discipline and could deal with various models, replicas and other manipulative devices. A similar finding is reported by Imperatore (1969). In this instance in comparing the performance of small town and rural disadvantaged Negro kindergarten students with that of more advantaged students in learning and verbalizing geographic concepts, the researcher found that while the higher socio-economic status students outperformed lower status students, the lower-status Negro student nevertheless could make significant gains in geographic understandings. The instruction was didactically oriented and as in that provided in Portugaly's study, very carefully structured. If disadvantaged children can master geographic knowledge at the age of five of six, there appears to be little reason why an appropriate sequentially-designed program extending into the elementary and secondard grades cannot be developed.

Indeed, some other recent groundbreaking research undertaken with primary grade children (involving some disadvantaged, but including a cross-section of racial,socio-economic and IQ groups) offers promise in this direction. (Charlotte Crabtree, Teaching Geography in Grades One through Three: Effects of Instruction in the Core Concept of Geographic Theory, Los Angeles, University of California, 1968, Final Report, Bureau of Research, USOE, Project No. 5-1037). Young children are able to learn key geographic concepts and skills and apply them successfully to new situations through carefully sequenced activities involving selective observations of geographic features, classification of data, analysis of interaction and causality in geographic distributions, formulation of hypotheses and generalizations, testing of hypotheses, and finally, the drawing of inferences about the meaning of the verified geographic knowledge. This program is much more extensive than either of those reported by Portugaly or Imperatore, and is more inductive and inquiry-oriented than Imperatore's. Still, they are similar in that they involve precise sequencing and structuring of content.

Teachers and curriculum supervisors have available to them guidelines for developing a sequential program in such sources as the NCSS Yearbook on Skill Development in the Social Studies (especially pages 148-169 and 322-325). The development of a school-wide and system-wide program beginning in kindergarten and the primary grades is essential, if as researchers have found, school is the main source of geographic information for young disadvantaged children and that learning in this discipline is a possibility at even the earliest public school levels.

Little research with regard to instruction for disadvantaged students in other social science disciplines such as political science and sociology has been conducted or at least reported. However, several studies have been undertaken in what is traditionally labeled, "civic education." This type of social studies curriculum development involves elements of law, political science and sociology. While most curriculum development efforts of this type have been directed at the secondary level, research concerned with the process of socialization, and more recently, political socialization have pointed to the importance of early childhood experiences. For example, Hess and Torney (1967) have reported that lower socio-economic status Caucasian children compared to higher status children in elementary school (grades two-eight): 1) feel more powerless, and less able to participate or be effective in political participation; 2) have a more personalized, less abstract view of government; 3) perceive laws as more rigid and binding; 4) express less interest in politics; and 5) participate less in political discussions. At least some of these findings are true for very young children regardless of status, as compared to older children. However, lower-status children hold these feelings until a much older age and some never move beyond these attitudes.

In a later study conducted among both Caucasians and Negroes, Hess (1969) reports the following differences associated with status and race: 1) marked decline among older Negro children, particularly lower socio-economic status boys, in their attitudes toward authority figures, most especially policemen; 2) tendency among lower-status children to see compliance systems (family, school, police) as reinforcing one another in concentric fashion with family and schools sanctioning other authorities; 3) greater likelihood among lower-status children to see their families as more democratic in establishing rules, and for Negro children as they grow older to see their mother's role as one of increasing importance in the compliance system; 4) Negro children perceive more frequently than Caucasian students that parents' punitive power is used to reinforce compliance to school rules and authorities and this is apparently more related to the Negro youth's classroom behavior; 5) Negro girls display more political interest than boys and for Negro youth in general political interest coincides with greater cooperation with teachers. Schnepf (1966) also found that relatively favorable attitudes toward police noted among second grade Negro children declined with increasing age. The researcher argued that since second grade was the last time formal instruction related to police, law and the legal system was provided for the students in her study revisions were required in the school program. None of these studies, however, reports on attempts to change these attitudes through instruction.

That young children tend to "personify" social relationships, various institutions and processes was also reported in a study of kindergarten children's perception of people with different racial and cultural characteristics (Neidell, 1965). Children tended to classify and stereotype Orientals and Negroes according to their own and frequently very limited personal contacts. But by providing in-school experiences with adult representatives of these two minority groups in a variety of roles, stereotyped reactions were reduced. Thus the importance of very early instruction in sociological and political knowledge, institutions and processes is obvious not only in teaching disadvantaged students, but in teaching others about the disadvantaged.

Although some researchers argue that civic education in elementary grades, particularly the primary grades (K-three), is crucial in developing knowledge about and conceptions of self, others and the society, other research provides little help in pinpointing how children's conceptions and attitudes limit or aid the learning of specific information and conceptual understanding with regard to social phenomena such as the problems of law and the role of law in our society (Grannis, 1967).

Individual characteristics of children's thinking about social phenomena may be more integrated with attitudes, beliefs and conceptualization patterns than frequently supposed and hence less amenable to change by virtue of specific instruction than some educators believe. This does not mean a well-designed curriculum utilizing a variety of instructional procedures and media, and teachers committed to, and trained in using the innovative practices and materials cannot bring about significant learning in disadvantaged students. And despite the doubt expressed by Hess and Torney for achieving significant results at the secondary level, research indicates that major learning about political and social phenomena does take place even in the last years of secondary school (Ratcliffe, 1969). Fifth-grade through twelfth-grade inner city students are able to make major gains in their understanding of, and attitude toward, the nature, role, and application of law in American society. The key to successful instruction this instance of the Law in American Society Project, appears to lie in the training of teachers utilizing the inquiry-oriented case study, multi-media and multi-activity curricula.

Other research, while less extensive, tends to support the Law project's findings. Jones (1965) found by using a case-study approach, with eighth-graders he could bring about greater understanding of, and more positive attitudes toward the Bill of Rights. A surprising finding perhaps, was that lower IQ students actually changed their attitudes to a greater extent than higher IQ students. In one instance, a minority group (Mexican-Americans), while exhibiting the least gain in information, showed the greatest positive changes in attitudes toward the Bill of Rights. This latter finding is not, however, completely supported by other research using the same case study procedure for teaching about the Bill of Rights. Estes (1966) found that favorable attitudes toward the Bill of Rights principles and tolerance of various minority groups and individuals could be increased among twelfth-grade students by studying key Supreme Court decisions through the use of simulation, role-playing, and case studies, but that attitudes were affected by religious convictions, socio-economic background, and race. Highly religious students displayed somewhat less tolerance of others and less agreement with the Bill of Rights. Working- or lower-class students displayed similar but even stronger negative values and attitudes as did members of racial minorities. Thus specific instruction relating to the principles associated with American democracy as found in the Bill of Rights had most effect for middle-class Caucasian students, and least value for lower-status, minority students. We can conclude that while civic education can be undertaken even late in secondary school years, it appears to have a greater chance for success if begun at earlier grade levels.

Implications. The foregoing discussion reflects research efforts related to specific social science of history components of social studies curricula designed either for disadvantaged students or to teach others about disadvantaged students. Analysis indicates that despite a great deal of exhortation, discussion and dialogue, far too little evidence is available to warrant definite conclusions about the nature of model programs.

History, traditionally a dominant component of the social studies curriculum, has lately been stressed as a vehicle for teaching disadvantaged students both about themselves and others and for teaching more advantaged students about the less advantaged. It is not clear whether innovators of ethnic studies prefer history as more suitable than other subjects or choose it because it is so widely required in schools. Usually such efforts have aimed at imparting information and fostering positive attitudes about oneself (on the part of the disadvantaged) and about others (among both disadvantaged and advantaged students). The success of such programs varies widely. Frequently knowledge gains can be achieved. Less frequently documented is success in developing positive attitudes or better intergroup relations. This is due at least in part to difficulty in measuring attitudinal or behavioral changes. And the achievement of specific program objectives is dependent upon a host of variables: social studies content, materials and media, instructional procedures, student ability and attitudes, and teacher preparation, attitudes, and involvement; school facilities and organization; and community attitudes and values, particularly where attitudinal objectives are sought. For now, it can be noted that knowledge gains are easier to achieve, or at least measure, than the development of positive intergroup attitudes.

Research also supports the change of traditional history content from a chronological and time-concept orientation dealing with institutions and broad movements, to focus upon people and particular issues and events that help to give a you-are-there quality. Disadvantaged students can more easily identify with the latter and see a relevance to their own lives.

The second implication of recent research is that either inductively or didactically arranged subject matter can be learned by the disadvantaged. They can learn specific social concepts and facts even early in the elementary years when content is carefully planned and sequenced and used by adequately trained teachers. Much of this content, particularly in anthropology, and economics, has previously been reserved for the secondary school curriculum. And some of it has never before been incorporated into programs for any students in the public school, let alone disadvantaged students. The question is, if disadvantaged students can learn it, should they? The answer will vary, no doubt with factors such as cost or availability of materials, competency of teachers, and other considerations. If the inclusion of this social science content enables students to gain a greater sense of self-identity, empathy for others, or provides them with analytical tools, concepts and data by which they both understand and make sense out of their physical and cultural environment, then the answer certainly seems affirmative.

A third implication relates to a goal of long standing in social studies instruction: civic competence. New content drawn from the field of law has been incorporated and more traditional history and political science content has been restructured into the social studies curriculum. Here again the innovation has extended into the elementary grades and here as with new history programs, objectives frequently include both knowledge gains and attitudinal changes. And here too, knowledge objectives seem more consistently documented than attitudinal ones.

Curriculum: Interdisciplinary Approaches

Reporting of research and its implications up to this point has centered on efforts basically within single social science disciplines, such as anthropology and history, or particular courses or programs such as civics or civic education. Frequently innovations along this line involve units of instruction lasting for a period of several weeks at succeeding grade levels. This is the case with Marion Rice's Anthropology Curriculum Project (Greene, 1966; Potterfield, 1966; Thomas, 1967; Hunt, 1969) and William Rader's Elementary School Economics project (Dooley, 1968). Other curriculum efforts have developed a full-year course such as Educational Development Center's Man: A Course of Study (Dow, 1969).

Additional significant efforts incorporate a more interdisciplinary approach. That is, concepts and content from several social studies and history are incorporated into the social studies curriculum at a particular grade level or spanning several grade or school levels. Several studies previously cited, while focusing upon or using as an organizing center a single discipline are actually interdisciplinary. For example, the Vallejo School School District project although largely organized around American history at grades five, eight, and eleven, actually incorporates an interdisciplinary conceptual orientation (Muller, 1969).

Certainly civic education or "civics" programs frequently involve strands from several of the social sciences.

Another characteristic of the studies reported thus far is that they were carried out during the regular school year within the normal school or curriculum organizational patterns. Efforts involving interdisciplinary and cross-disciplinary, or the combining of social studies instruction with instruction in other school subjects, sometimes go beyond the regular school program. Title I programs typify this approach wherein special instruction is provided to compensate for the disadvantagement that many students face in competing with more advantaged students. Such a program in Kansas City, Missouri involved both elementary and secondary students (Wheeler, 1968). The elementary social studies program focused on the overall theme of "My Community and Me." At the kindergarten and primary grade levels the specific topics apparently followed traditional trends in that the family was the major focus of study. The middle and upper elementary grades programs focused on cities and city services. More formal and traditional courses were included for ninth and tenth grade students. Traditional textbooks were abandoned, curricula and instructional materials were designed at the individual classroom or grade level in each school. Apparently teachers were expected to follow the general theme and sub-topics outlined by project planners, but were given a great deal of latitude in selecting, designing and sequencing specific materials, experiences and procedures. Teachers generally reported favorably on their own feelings toward the program and the apparent effectiveness of the program. Student interest also was reportedly high. However, achievement test scores indicated no measurable gains. Whether the achievement test actually measured what was taught is questionable. Another factor is the apparent wide latitude given individual schools and teachers in designing their own instructional programs. Individualizing or tailoring instruction undoubtedly has advantages, but evaluating results of such efforts is complicated greatly. Almost all of the positive research findings have come from much more tightly organized and controlled instructional situations. In fact, while there has been a good bit of "trying out" and experimentation relating to social studies and the disadvantaged students in Title I and other such programs, little research data is available beyond impressions of teachers involved in the programs. Where achievement tests and attitude inventories and other evaluation devices were used, the results have not always supported these impressionistic judgments. It seems pretty clear from this fact that school systems are well advised to include an adequate testing and evaluation dimension in an innovative program or run the risk of deceiving themselves about the actual outcomes of the program.

A less extensive, but more controlled developmental curriculum innovation than that reported for Kansas City, Missouri, was undertaken by Milwaukee schools. It achieved significant gains in both social studies achievement and pupil attitudes

(Ashbaugh, 1967). Supervisors and teachers developed their own new seventh grade course of study which included historical, anthropological and other social science content. The course surveyed Western Civilization with an emphasis on cultural universals such as food and shelter, and also institutions such as families, government and art forms. The students enrolled were from inner-city neighborhoods, although not all were necessarily disadvantaged.

A promising approach that has been advocated in recent years is the development of a social studies curriculum that covers less content, but treats selected topics much more intensively. Success in using such a curriculum design is reported by Gornick (1967). Revising fourth-and sixth-grade courses to reduce content coverage and devoting greater attention to significant concepts, generalizations, and principles drawn from six social sciences enabled lower IQ students to make greater gains than higher IQ students. Observers' subjective impressions noted higher levels of motivation and enthusiasm among less able students.

Implications. Even though there are only limited data regarding the success of interdisciplinary social studies programs among disadvantaged at this time, there are numerous proposals, programs and projects under way with an interdisciplinary approach. Available reserach frequently documents success among more advantaged students and some research findings indicate a likely favorable result in this regard with disadvantaged students. Particularly encouraging is the finding that lower IQ students achieve significant learning gains when coverage of content is reduced in favor of treating in depth a smaller number of topics and concepts, whether incorporated into a single disciplinary or interdisciplinary approach. Professional journals contain frequent criticism of social studies programs that survey a vast number of topics in cursory fashion. Research seems to indicate that this is a particularly well-founded criticism with regard to curricula for disadvantaged students.

Curriculum: Combining Social Studies and Other School Subjects

One approach in developing curriculum for disadvantaged students involves designing social studies programs and courses that draw from several of the social sciences. Another approach is to combine, fuse or teach social studies in conjunction with other school subjects. Reported efforts are directed at the secondary school level where separate subjects taught by individual departments is the predominant practice as contrasted to the elementary level where self-contained classrooms with a single teacher teaching all or most subjects is the predominant pattern. Sometimes this approach is aimed at knowledge gains, but invariably it also involves attitudinal objectives, particularly improvement of the disadvantaged students' self-image. In some instances social studies instruction is used as a vehicle for improving achievement in particular skills such as reading. Here again the degree of success varies widely depending on community and school factors.

In the past, curriculum patterns have combined in some fashion social studies and English or language arts instruction. This approach is still being experimented with in programs geared especially to the disadvantaged. For example, one school system combined English and Government courses for low-achievement students, reduced emphasis on reading and incorporated more student-centered activities. Teachers observed, and students themselves indicated, improvement in their attitudes and interests toward school, but as frequently happens, the achievement gains, in this case, social studies and reading, were not particularly outstanding in comparison to students performance in traditional courses (Murray, 1968).

More positive results were recorded in a six-week summer experimental program for disadvantaged "culturally" and "bilingually" (deficient in English as a second language) high school students. Some students participated in both a social studies and a communications or language arts course. Others attended only social studies classes. All students participated in tutorial sessions and attended cultural events. Content for the social studies courses was drawn from the behavioral sciences and stressed self-identity and self-improvement in one course and the role of individuals in the larger society in the other. Courses were specially structured for students who had difficulty with the English language. As a result of the program, student attitudes about themselves, school, and society became more positive, and while very little improvement was attained in vocabulary and reading performance, substantial gains were made on a general achievement test (Gold, 1968).

A somewhat similar effort in combining, or at least teaching in a cooperative fashion, social studies and English, and including activities in music and art, brought about significant attitude changes in previously unsuccessful high school students coming largely from low-income families (Funderburk, 1968).

Even broader curricular correlations have been attempted. Instruction in social studies, language arts and science have been coordinated within three hour blocks of time for seventh grade disadvantaged white and Negro students (Young, 1967). Actually the entire organization of the curriculum was reshaped for the experiment. Substantial gains were reported not only in social studies, but across the board on a general achievement test. In fact, some students were able to score above national norms. However, it was found that those students with the lowest levels of achievement recorded prior to entering the new program derived least benefit from it. That is, they were less likely to score major gains as a result of the revised program. This implies that even more radical departure in curriculum organization and instructional procedures is needed. Adjustments, tinkering, and minor revisions may work for "fringe area" disadvantaged, but undoubtedly, this does not meet the needs and the problems of the "hard core" disadvantaged.

For example, students who come from families where Spanish rather than English is the primary language of oral communication and where low socio-economic status and cultural differences complicate the educational task still further, do not succeed very well as a group in school. Frequently, they give up and drop out of school. While language is a problem, so too is the fact that their families' cultural backgrounds are at variance with the dominant American culture. Yet very little experimental research has been reported regarding social studies curriculum design relevant to the needs of these students. Designing programs to overcome both language deficiency and the lack of socialization or adjustment to the dominant American culture can cut the dropout rate substantially among secondary school-aged youth such as Mexican-Americans who face language and culture barriers (Miller, 1967). But a recent survey of schools in one Southwestern state indicates that social studies is one of the least emphasized curriculum areas in schools which teach children of agricultural migrant workers. Many of these youths undoubtedly face the dual problems of English deficiency and cultural adjustment. Despite this, school authorities apparently believe that social studies is the least difficult subject area for migrant children (Scott, 1968).

Implications. Clearly, one avenue of further development and research that needs to be taken is the designing of social studies programs related to minority group cultures. Much is now becoming available in the area of Negro history and culture. But far too little is available about other minority groups. A second possible avenue of exploration is the development of comparative culture programs that lead students to examine basic similarities and differences in political, social, and economic institutions and processes in both parent and American cultures. Most traditional social studies curricula are not designed in this way. And commercial publishers offer little in this area. Nor are major current social studies curriculum projects concerned with this task. It will remain for local systems, states and especially funded Federal projects such as those dealing broadly with education for the disadvantaged, or more narrowly conceived efforts centering upon developments of programs for migrant or Indian youth to tailor programs to the specific needs of selected groups. Using "slow learner" materials and various components of a "Black Studies" program for a mixed group of disadvantaged Negroes, Puerto Ricans, Mexican-Americans, Indians or white Appalachian youth scarcely has the same potential in learning achievement for each of the groups involved. Among those schools that have reported on their efforts, the greatest success seems to come where programs have been designed in relation to local conditions and ethnic groups. And while reports on the combining of instructional efforts in social studies and some other subject areas are more numerous at the secondary level, a similar effort exists at the elementary level, particularly in projects and programs under Title I funding. But research dealing with a more cross-disciplinary approach is sparse. Far too few single out social studies for specific reporting. Nevertheless, for many disadvantaged students especially bilingual students and those who possess a dual-cultural background, the development of an integrated curriculum that combines elements of one or more school subjects with dual culturally-oriented social studies instruction seems a viable approach.

Affective and Cognitive Elements

No doubt one of the increasingly important dimensions of social studies programs is the extent and direction of affective learning, that is learning associated with students' attitudes and values. This is not to say that cognitive learning, or the acquisition and use of knowledge and various intellectual skills and abilities (sometimes labeled "critical thinking skills") has necessarily diminished in importance. But with increased attention being devoted to education for disadvantaged (the goals being the development of more positive intergroup behaviors, including greater tolerance, and empathy in order that equality of opportunity becomes a reality and not just a dream) on the other hand, educators have sought to specify, attain and measure affective learning more consistently than ever before. In this area there is considerable research evidence, and precisely because there is, contradictions have frequently developed. Among the problems researchers face is lack of valid and reliable test instruments. A second problem they confront is that although tests can be designed to inventory shifts in attitudes, such devices do not necessarily reflect actual out-of-school behavior. This latter, of course, is the real test of instruction. Students may give "answers" they recognize teachers want, but this does not mean they act on the basis of those answers either in school or out. Other factors complicate research efforts, interpretations of research, and application of findings to new situations. We simply do not know enough about the interrelationship of students' varying cultural backgrounds, personality factors, local school conditions and environment, teachers' personalities and style of teaching, and instructional materials and procedures to specify with any exactness the proper balance between cognitive and affective elements of a social studies cirriculum, or for that matter what the nature of affective learning ought to be or, if it will result in achieving desired objectives (see Grannis, 1967 for a discussion of the difficulty in designing curricula and measuring learning in this regard).

An important principle established by psychologists years ago and now supported by current research is that individuals and groups, because of varying cultural and environmental backgrounds perceive any new phenomena differently. This results in selective perception. For example, members of one racial or ethnic group tend to perceive, learn and remember information about themselves or other groups at different rates or feel differently than do members of other sub-groups (Gustafson, 1957; Neidell, 1965;

Edgar, 1966; Brzeinski, 1968). Socio-economic status has a similar effect (Gibboney, 1957; Fisher, 1965; Estes, 1966; Davies, 1967; Hess, 1967; Teahan, 1967). But students' race or ethnic background does not always result in significant differences in knowledge acquisition or attitude development (Georgeoff, 1967; Whitla, 1968). The list of factors that can impinge on the learning process and result in racial or social class differences in learning in one instances, but not in another, is extensive. A few instances may illustrate the complexity and interrelationship of family background, community environment, school factors and individual student learning.

Neighborhood integration patterns may affect not only student learning, but also as noted in an earlier discussion, teacher behavior (Georgeoff). The impact on the teacher may be so subtle that it goes unnoticed, yet fears and anxieties of community reaction take their toll on teacher performance. Undoubtedly the more radical the departure from the traditional curricula the innovation is, the greater will be the anxiety. With regard to students from racially segregated communities who are integrated in a school setting, Georgeoff found that interracial study patterns could be enhanced. But where students came from racially integrated neighborhoods, no gains were achieved leading the researchers to suggest that neighborhood experiences had already firmly fixed attitudes. On the other hand, both Negro and white students from integrated neighborhoods significantly raised their self-concepts whereas those from segregated neighborhoods did not. Obviously other inter-racial or non-racial factors operated and undoubtedly socio-economic status was one of these factors.

The interrelationship of schools' racial composition and instructional efforts to change attitudes towards a particular racial group is reported by Roth (1969). In this instance, elements of Negro history and culture incorporated into the social studies curriculum for fifth grade students resulted in more positive attitudes among white students toward Negroes when they were in an integrated school situation, but no significant gains were reported in an all-white segregated school setting.

The impact on learning in the social studies of socio-economic segregation within school populations is documented by a study in Kansas City, Kansas (Davies, 1967). Students from low-income families attending the same elementary school in a low-income area for at least three years prior to testing in the junior high school, scored poorest compared to groups of higher status students on higher-level learning process items such as those requiring judgment and application of knowledge and skills. They also scored least well of all three socio-economic groups in almost all areas of the test. This study bears out the judgment many teachers have rendered regarding disadvantaged students' adademic potential. Frequently that judgment is exemplified by the statement: "They can't handle these high level questions; they are lucky if they can learn a few of the facts involved in the case." Is this a self-fulfilling prophecy?

In another study with fifth-, sixth-, and ninth-graders, the researcher (Teahan, 1967) found that instructional films and photographs portraying white or Negroes had a negative impact on attitudes toward the race portrayed among students of the opposite race. Socio-economic factors, especially parental occupation were important. In this instance high-status white students became more prejudiced toward Negroes after instruction because of perceived threats to fathers' jobs and possible future changes in neighborhood housing patterns. Lower-status whites became less prejudiced. This is contrary to generally accepted views and other research that accords greater prejudice to lower-status students (Gibboney, 1957, Gustafson, 1957; Fisher, 1965; Jones, 1965; Estes, 1966) and sometimes for precisely the same reasons cited by Teahan! Similarly, Jones (1965) reports greater success in developing positive attitudes toward Bill of Rights principles among lower IQ rather than higher students. While these studies may represent exceptions, the implication is clear enough: educators need to guard against unwarranted assumptions about the performance of various groups of students with regard to affective learning.

Even where schools succeed in achieving one of their instructional goals for disadvantaged students, the success itself can create problems. Take, for example, the attempt to build better self-concepts among the disadvantaged. In an experimental situation where self-images were raised, students perceived, and correctly so, that there had not been a corresponding change in the way others viewed them. Teachers' views of the students remained relatively constant (Stoakes, 1964). This growing gap between the way disadvantaged students view themselves and the way others view them, especially when perceived by the students can, and no doubt does, lead at least some students to become hostile and rebel against teachers and schools. If educators seek to change students' self-concepts, they had better be prepared to put aside many of the stereotypic impressions they hold and communicate to their students.

This aim of changing, in some positive fashion, disadvantaged students self-images is one of the most pervasive characteristics of educational programs designed especially for the disadvantaged. We have not come to accept that by virtue of their being disadvantaged, students, even whole groups of students, are deprived of an adequate sense of individual growth. And there is a great evidence to support this view.

Many previous studies have pointed toward a relatively poor self-image among Negroes as compared to white children. Yet this should not be assumed to be universal. Whitla and Hanley found that Negro students actually had a stronger self-image than their white peers. And they cite additional research to support their findings. While the exact number of students involved is not reported, data are reported for a range of 105 to 155 classes. This is a fairly extensive sample. One implication bears directly on the reported objectives of minority group history or culture programs, such as Black Studies or Negro history courses. Almost

Almost always such programs have as a goal the strengthening of individual students' self- and group-images since it is assumed that disadvantaged minority group students do not have a sufficient image of self and group and that this contributes to a lack of success in school. This may be the case, but the assumption should not be accepted as applicable to all such students. The development of a Negro history course or any other racial, ethnic or cultural course or program as a part of compensatory education to improve self-images should rest upon an appropriate attitude inventory as well as other data analysis regarding the specific student population and the community involved.

In addition to fostering more positive self-images, minority group history and culture courses and some social problems and issue programs usually have a second goal: to provide information about, and change attitudes of outside groups toward, the "in-group." But here again research provides both support that this can be achieved and that, in fact, negative changes may occur. With a special series of hard-hitting television programs for secondary students dealing with the problem of race relations in the United States, researchers were astonished to find that, even before the viewing of the programs, black and white students largely agreed (65%) on an answer--a truly integrated society. As a result of the TV programs 10% more of the students accepted that position. This, given the limited amount of instruction provided (five films and follow-up discussions), was a considerable achievement. But 5% changed their views toward a more "negative" (or separatist society) response. Thus, for every two students who changed attitudes and views toward a more positive direction, one changed negatively. Because of the large number of communities, classes and teachers involved, many factors were not well controlled. Had they been, perhaps some of the negative reactions would not have resulted. Yet this lack of control is probably typical of most actual classroom instruction. Variations among students, teachers, schools, communities, and regions all have a cumulative impact on instruction. The implications of this are clear: a short-term instructional program can change attitudes, but there is no guarantee of the direction or intensity or holding power of the change. Any school system or teacher hoping to achieve affective objectives through social studies instruction is well advised to field-test on a small scale with appropriate research controls before launching a full-scale program. Achieving attitudinal and value objectives even when teachers, administractors, and communities can agree on the aims is uncertain at best. It could have both desired and undesired results--for students, for the local community and even for the nation. School authorities and teachers must seek to provide a curriculum that fosters increasingly positive intergroup attitudes and behavior. A pluralistic society can affort no less.

Other research findings amplify and extend the points made thus far. In an experiment conducted by Denver Public Schools (Brzeinski) with fifth-grade students involving a variety of means of instruction and student activities related to historical and cultural contributions of minority peoples, students achieved significant gains in knowledge and improved their social attitudes toward different ethnic and racial groups. But the "best" combination of instructional materials, activities and teaching procedures appear to vary with the particular racial or ethnic group involved. (This point will be explored in the next chapter.) Here again selective perception was a factor in knowledge gains, with each ethnic or racial group scoring best on tests related to personalities and contributions of its own group.

The Vallejo, California schools study with its fifth-, eighth-, and eleventh-grade American history program adds yet another dimension that was briefly referred to earlier. Despite highly significant knowledge gains on a Negro history test, most students' behavior in and out of school did not change in the desired direction (increase in intergroup encounters and activities). As frequently reported in earlier studies, increased knowledge about others will not necessarily result in changed behavior toward them. Some students, however, exhibited both changed attitudes and behavior in the direction of more positive intergroup relations. A significant finding is that the program was least successful among eleventh-grade students. This finding, that greater success can be achieved with younger students where activities and values are central or directly involved in the learning task, has considerable support (Fisher, 1965; Neidell, 1965; Hess, 1967; Litcher, 1969). This does not mean, as some researchers have implied (Hess and Torney) that secondary programs are ineffective. For we have evidence of both cognitive and affective learning among disadvantaged, or among more advantaged students relative to their knowledge about, and views toward disadvantaged groups, right up to the last years of secondary school work (Gold, 1968; Whitla, 1968; Ratcliffe, 1969). Nevertheless, the earlier instruction begins, the greater the chance for success.

An important difference is noticeable in reported efforts in dealing with attitudes toward others in early elementary as contrasted to secondary experiments. Curriculum designers are much more willing to focus on emotionally-charged issues and conflicts at the secondary level as compared to the elementary level. In so doing there is a greater risk of underscoring already existing hostile attitudes or in creating hostility where, at least overtly, it does not exist. The more subtle approach at the elementary level (Litcher, Neidell, Fisher) seems to be necessary before launching into highly-charged, anxiety-developing issues. That is, it seems essential to have carefully developed curricula that first develop positive attitudes about others as individuals, about cultural and class differences, and a willingness to talk and work with others of different racial, ethnic, or other backgrounds on more "mundane" matters, before launching headlong into questions of public policy or individual moral responsibilities. While this point seems to be self-evident, it is atypical rather than typical of many social studies programs where little consistent effort is made to build toward positive intergroup attitudes at the elementary level before requiring students to jump into the treatment of controversial issues in a rather objective and analytical way. To expect favorable impressions to be created toward groups or individuals who are for the first time singled out in the context of an emotion-arousing topic or unit of study is to expect a greater level of performance than most students are capable of exhibiting.

Implications. The following research findings and implications seem most noteworthy in relation to both knowledge and values dimensions of social studies curricula designed for disadvantaged youth or to teach others about disadvantaged. First attitudes, values and beliefs are inexorably related to the acquisition of knowledge and intellectual skills. Cognitive learning, or the acquisition of knowledge and the attainment of thinking skills are more often attempted than are affective or attitudinal and value learning. Within the sphere of affective learning, the changes in students' self-concepts are apparently more easily achieved and documented than changes in attitudes or behavior toward others. Actual behavior changes related to members of different racial, ethnic or socio-economic groups are the most difficult to attain or to observe, record and measure. Where an affective or attitudinal dimension has been incorporated into social studies curricula, it has usually taken a softer, more subtle tack at the elementary level where as the secondary level confrontation situations and emotion-ladden issues are sometimes incorporated. The most frequent social science content area that is used as a vehicle for affective learning is American history and culture, although civics or civic education programs, including elements of political science and law are also utilized.

Because of the various influences on affective learning, it is difficult to be certain that changes in attitudes and behavior will be in the direction desired. Neither can the degree of change be predicted with accuracy. These qualifications, however, seem more related to curricula that utilize confrontation materials or procedures. When such components are built into a curriculum it may be best to provide prior experiences that foster positive attitude development toward other groups, both advantaged and disadvantaged. Indeed. an integrated and sequential K-12 curriculum that incorporates both cognitive and affective dimensions is the most desirable.

At the primary grade level multi-ethnic and interracial teaching material can be used effectively as can well-designed intergroup experiences. Carefully selected and sequenced social science and history content and an array of teaching materials and teaching procedures that can be most effectively developed, adopted or adapted and utilized by the local teaching staff can foster the steady development of disadvantaged students' self-images.

Some disadvantaged groups may need a special curriculum to enable them to develop feelings of worthiness and to overcome learning-skill deficiences so that academic success is possible and is seen as possible by the individual students. This is especially important for students whose primary language is other than English and where cultural backgrounds accentuate differences or lead others to single out differences. In such cases an integration of social studies with other subjects may be desirable. Cross-cultural content can readily be combined with language and reading development.

Local schools are well-advised to inventory or test their students before redesigning curriculum. For example, it should not be assumed that, simply by virtue of being classified as disadvantaged, individuals or groups necessarily possess an inadequate sense of individual or group worth. Within the last few years the racial pride exhibited among black Americans and marked changes in American society, culture, industry, and politics has accorded greater status to Negroes. Obviously much remains to be accomplished, but there has been a distinct shift of self- and group-image among Negroes of this generation as compared to previous generations. Some research shows Negroes with higher self-images than their white peers. Other minority groups--Indians, Hispanic-Americans and others--have not, apparently, undergone the same extent or breadth of change. Thus special programs may be more important for them, particularly study about their own parent cultures followed by comparative-culture studies.

When schools attempt to teach advantaged students about their more disadvantaged peers, or to teach one group of disadvantaged about another, very specific local conditions, issues, and sub-cultural patterns deserve consideration. Perceived competition for housing, jobs, and positions of status or power can engender anxieties and fears among any group. There appears a greater willingness among white, middle class Americans (the "majority group" in many situations) to learn about others and to more readily change attitudes toward others, but schools cannot assume this to be universal. If middle class white students living in a segregated neighborhood perceive a threat to their parents' ability to hold jobs, or maintain traditional neighborhood housing patterns, then they may react negatively to even a subtle approach to foster positive intergroup relations. Additionally, curricula that provide sporadic and limited attention to the affective domain may run the risk of actually fostering stereotyped and negative learning.

Finally, the importance of the teacher in both affective and cognitive learning can hardly be over-emphasized. While curriculum centers, social studies projects, and local school system projects attempt to provide guidelines for the implementation of the new curricula, some of the innovations appear to require greater efforts than do others in in-service training. This seems most pertinent in those instances where changes in teaching strategies, or styles are required. But few research reports considered teacher variables in assessing either cognitive or affective learning. Where such data are reported they appear to be of more importance in affective than cognitive learning.

Summary and Recommendations for Curriculum Revision and Development

Despite the fact that research has only infrequently accompanied curriculum development efforts related to social studies and the disadvantaged, available data do have significant implications and do provide a basis for some recommendations.

Curricula for Disadvantaged Students. History as a vehicle provides disadvantaged students with information about themselves as a group and about cultural contributions that they as a group or individuals representative of the group have made. This is usually done within American history and culture courses rather than world history or special area studies programs. Such courses are found at elementary, junior high, and senior high levels. Typically, the grade levels are four-five, seven-eight, and eleven. Objectives are both cognitive and affective with knowledge acquisition invariably tied to efforts to improve self-concepts and group-concepts. Sometimes programs are designed to develop favorable attitudes towards others, particular minority groups or other disadvantaged groups.

Acquisition of knowledge is emphasized in social studies curriculum innovations more often than changes in attitudes. Positive changes in self-image are more often attained than changes in attitudes toward others. Disadvantaged students usually show less positive attitude development toward others than do non-disadvantaged. This, however, varies with particular topics of study and specific local situations. Newly gained knowledge and attitudes both about one's own group and particularly about others are fragile. Unless subsequently reinforced, new learning can be largely lost within a year or less.

When revising or designing a social studies curriculum for disadvantaged students that will include a separate history component the following recommendations seem pertinent:

1) Deemphasize time and chronology, particularly in the elementary grades.

2) Focus on situations and personalities more than broad movements and institutions.

3) Attempt to provide a you-are-there or here-and-now quality with which students can identify.

4) Include less breadth but more depth on a fewer number of significant topics.

5) For Mexican-Americans, Indians or other students who have a dual-cultural background, provide opportunities beginning in the elementary school to study both the parent and American cultures, seeking development of major points of commonality and difference.

6) Beginning in the elementary grades include a balanced study of the historical and current contributions, role, and status of various minority groups in American society. The current emphasis on Black Studies is helping to correct the imbalance that has pervaded and continues to exist in the curriculum. But Negro as well as other American youth need to learn about other minority groups. We have in the past and continue presently to neglect various minority groups in social studies programs, especially Hispanic- and Indian-Americans.

One of the trends in social studies education is the attempt to include in the curriculum, even early in the elementary program, social science concepts, information, and inquiry procedures. Some experimental work has been carried on with disadvantaged students. Research indicates that disadvantaged students of various socio-economic, racial or ethnic backgrounds can learn this new content. Several of the major curriculum projects have reported success with single discipline-oriented programs such as anthropology, economics, or law. Some schools have reported similar success with integrated or interdisciplinary programs. While either is a viable alternative, it should be noted that those curriculum projects which focus on a single social science usually develop a single short unit (four to six weeks of classwork) at succeeding grade levels. Additional curriculum components may, therefore, need to be designed or adopted.

Recommendations based on these findings include:

1) Develop a conceptually and sequentially organized curriculum. Do not assume disadvantaged students cannot deal with social science concepts or big ideas. They can, if given carefully and sequentially designed programs that maximize opportunities for success along each step of the curriculum. Because of limited cultural opportunities disadvantaged students rely more on schools for specific learning gains than do more advantaged students.

2) Confrontational material used as a basis for a realistic analysis of conflicting values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviors in American Society can form an important element in the social studies program for disadvantaged students. But such materials or episodes are best used judiciously and with sufficient attention to the development of adequate skills and background knowledge and a thorough and balanced treatment of the conflicts involved. Sporadic or shotgun treatment can possibly lead to the development

of negative attitudes and behavior toward others. Avoid "hard-sell" programs that create feelings of hostility among disadvantaged students toward more advantaged members of American society.

3) Design a sequential K-12 social studies skills program that provides reinforcement of previous learning. Appropriate skills involve maps and globes, time and chronological relationships, and inquiry procedures associated with specific social science disciplines.

Conceptually organized and sequentially developed curriculum may have the practical effect of limiting individual teachers' design and organization of classroom learning experiences. This is the price to be paid for the most effective learning in almost any subject. Social studies, more than most subjects, has been taught in a haphazard and sometimes redundant manner. Advantaged students frequently learn despite this drawback; disadvantaged students frequently do not.

Some school systems, faced such problems as English language deficiency of bilingually disadvantaged students or for other reasons, choose to reorganize their curriculum for disadvantaged students at the secondary level across traditional subject lines. Most frequently this fusion or coordination includes social studies and English or some sort of reading, communication, or language skills development. Sometimes social studies is used as content for reading and language skills achievement or improved self-concepts. The reported efforts of this type are locally developed to meet specific local needs. However, such an approach seems to be applicable elsewhere with bilingually disadvantaged and others with a dual-cultural background. In such cases the coordination of social studies, language arts, reading and possibly other subjects such as art and music may be begun in the primary grades. Thus the adoption of major social studies projects' curriculum and materials may not be the most appropriate in these instances--at least not without significant modifications.

Teaching Others about the Disadvantaged. Beyond the quality and effectiveness of a social studies curriculum designed for disadvantaged students, more adequate provision can be made for teaching advantaged students about the sub-cultures and historical background of various disadvantaged groups. Additionally, both disadvantaged and advantaged students may be given opportunities in school to consider the problems and issues confronting American society precisely because they involve both groups. Treatment of these problems and issues can be appropriately handled through open, reflective, inquiring teaching procedures. This requires specific instruction in issue analysis rather than being left to random treatment on "current events day." Concentrated "hard-sell" instructional delayed until the secondary school years not only may be inappropriate, but it runs the risk of creating or reinforcing hostility. In particular local situations even indirect efforts to improve intergroup relations can bring about the reverse of what curriculum designers and teachers intend. Anxiety, fear and hostility are the natural outcomes of perceived threats to jobs, housing and personal status or security. Correspondingly, local school authorities and teachers may study their own local conditions very carefully before deciding on appropriate curriculum innovations or refinements. This does not mean that schools should use the risk of failure as an excuse for doing nothing in the way or curriculum revision. Too many schools, seemingly far-removed from the problems faced by other schools in disadvantaged areas, have refused to recognize that they too share responsibility for teaching about the disadvantaged. That responsiblity includes developing in their students a willingness to accept the dignity and worth of individuals regardless of differences in racial or physical characteristics and culture or life-styles.

As with teaching disadvantaged students, teaching others about the disadvantaged occurs most commonly in American history courses at both elementary and secondard school levels. Middle-class, white students usually but not always appear to be willing to learn about others and frequently as a result of instruction will change their attitudes, in a more favorable direction, toward minority groups. Still, success is more often documented in knowledge attainment than in actual attitude or behavior change. And newly acquired learning, unless reinforced, can easily be lost within a matter of months.

Recommendations for developing or revising social studies curricula to teach others about the disadvantaged are:

1) Design a sequential K-12 curriculum incorporating the study of a range of peoples and cultures and utilizing a comparative culture study approach.

2) Beginning in the lower grades, systematic intergroup contacts through the use of pupil assignment, classroom visitors, various media and actual classroom, and school intergroup activities are desirable. But superficial and fleeting intergroup contacts may serve to reinforce or create stereotypes.

3) Programs aimed at fostering positive intergroup attitudes may include confrontational materials or episodes but these are best selected in light of particular local conditions as well as national priorities and require both a thorough and balanced treatment of the issues involved. Curriculum components that primarly develop feelings of guilt among advantaged students appear to serve the objective less well.

4) Revise American history courses to include attention to the cultural contributions, role, and status of various minority groups throughout our history.

5) Include in world history, world geography, or other world studies programs more adequate and balanced treatment of

the historical and cultural backgrounds of various ethnic groups in American society.

6) Where local circumstances make it impractical to deal directly with particular issues or problems a similar issue or problem in other cultures by way of introduction (race relations in Brazil or South Africa, tribal relations in Nigeria).

CHAPTER THREE

TEACHING STRATEGIES AND MEDIA

Teaching Strategies

Media

School Levels

Types of Learning

Implications and Recommendations for Use of Teaching Strategies and Media

Induction, deduction, multi-media, simulation, interaction activities--the labels of methodologies fly at teachers, supervisors, and parents. How easy for all of us if it were possible to give a student an injection of American history or civics or geography and how painless for him. Alas, this is not the case; at least not until 1984 or The Brave New World. Even if this painless injection were possible is this the way Americans should be educated? Or are there values and information that can only be gained by interaction with others?

This chapter deals with questions of teaching strategies and the effects of media on disadvantaged learners. The chapter treats identifiable strategies in terms of their probable effects on cognitive and attitude acquisition. The available research on deductive and inductive methodologies as well as media approaches, multiactivity and other approaches will be interpreted in an effort to convey the implications of the research to users.

Teaching Strategies

Methodologies used with disadvantaged students parallel those used with all students. The pattern of strategies revealed in the paragraphs to follow show that some methods are destined to fail with the disadvantaged learner and that none guarantees academic success or attitude change. But dents are beginning to show in the wall that seems to separate the disadvantaged from school success. While not all the answers are in, headway is being made by individual researchers, program developers, and school districts.

Inductive-Deductive Strategies. Perhaps because of the emphasis brought about by the new social studies over the past ten years, the focus of experimentation seems to be on inductive teaching methodologies. This is not to say that there are a great number of strictly inductive studies and few deductive studies. The number of both is relatively small; only one study attempts to compare inductive versus deductive learning.

One of the problems that was confronted is how to identify inductive and deductive instruction in the studies. The differences that exist between the two methodologies are not as clearly drawn as, for example, between simulation techniques and textbook approaches. For the purpose of this description inductive strategies are considered those that begin with questions identified by the teacher or the student. The student then proceeds to gather information to answer the questions and to generalize on the basis of the information that was found. On the other hand, deductive strategies begin with a certain body of information that is relayed by the teacher or a teaching device such as a textbook or a film. Another element to be considered is that many of the studies selected as inductive were identified by the word unit. The reason for this is that units often start with questions to be answered. Usually these questions are answered after study and investigation by students. Whereas, deductive strategies begin with information from a source, the student's role is to understand the conclusions presented or to prove the validity of the information rather than to generalize on the basis of the information.

Even though the content of the two types of materials was not precisely equivalent, Dooley (1968) found that inductive materials led to greater knowledge gains in Negro elementary children than in white children. Another investigator found that low intelligence students made high information gains and showed high levels of interest and enthusiasm--always a concern of the teacher of disadvantaged pupils. Because inductive teaching strategies require student activity, less content can be "covered" in a given amount of time than with deductive strategies (Gornick, 1967). Often, there is preoccupation with the idea of covering the material. Is covering the material the same as learning? Is it really necessary for all students to "cover" the same material? Is it not possible that disadvantaged students should be exposed to materials that differ from that offered to the average and above-average student? Often it seems that school programs are so concerned with the bright child and the college-bound student that the disadvantaged youngster who does not fit into this pattern of aspiration is ignored.

Inquiry methodology is considered more time consuming than deductive strategies. Still, a survey by Cheyney (1966) reveals that teachers using a unit-project method, believed that their students learned more and remembered that content longer than when taught using a deductive (textbook) method. Using experimental materials and teacher training in inquiry-oriented methodology, Ratcliffe (1969) reported significant information gains and attitude changes with upper elementary and junior high age students. Their teachers used the experimental materials and a variety of teaching strategies most of which would be classified as inductive.

On the other hand Fisher (1965) found that elementary students learned when using deductive strategies--text reading, and text reading plus discussion. The greater information gains occurred when the students discussed what they had read. Attitude gains occurred with both groups which implies that reading alone can have distinctive positive effects on attitudes.

Increased knowledge gain on the part of elementary pupils occurred with the use of anthropology and geography units (Potterfield, 1966; Green, 1966; Hunt, 1969; and Imperatore, 1969). Each of these units were designed to be taught in a didactic fashion through a highly structured sequence of learning activities. When using an elementary program Our Working World: Families at Work, classified by Dooley as deductive in nature, Spears (1967) found that low socio-economic class pupils made greater knowledge gains than did those pupils participating in the school district's conventional social studies program.

It is not the purpose to enthusiastically endorse one method over another because most inquiry approaches contain elements of deduction. Several authorities writing in the field of elementary social studies advocate neither induction nor deduction but believe a combination of strategies is necessary.

It stands to reason that youngsters, particularly elementary age youngsters, are going to learn while they are in school. The question is what strategies seem to be most efficient with disadvantaged students? Obviously, if students are continually engaged in inductive study the amount of information to which they are exposed will be reduced. Many consider that the most efficient way to transmit information is to tell the information. However, when long-term gains, retention of information, and interest are important, and they are particularly important with disadvantaged youngsters, the teacher and program planner might do well to sacrifice the large volume of social studies information input with disadvantaged youngsters and concentrate on what information is most useful to him using teaching strategies that will result in long-term information gain and information retention.

When discussing elementary age students the number of teaching strategies employing inductive methods was considerably larger than deductive strategies. This is not the case in secondary education. While much of the literature in the field of social science education would lead one to believe that induction is especially the province of the secondary school teacher, the proportion of studies dealing with induction on the high school level would make one think otherwise.

Generally, secondary school students enjoy inductive methodologies. However, this may be due more to the nature of the materials that are used than the methodology itself. The number of studies on the secondary school level use of induction are so few that it is difficult to generalize. It is possible to say that strategies such as case studies are very well received and in general accomplish what they are designed to accomplish. The informational gains reported are not sensational but expected--higher IQ students made the greatest information gains. However, the middle and lower IQ youngsters made greater positive attitudinal gains than did the highest IQ group (Jones, 1965). Similar results were reported by Estes (1966) who found that students using case studies made greater information and attitude gains than did students using more conventional materials and methodology.

The research on deductive strategies at the secondary school level is not definitive. Generally, less favorable reports are made of strategies relying heavily on texts as the prime teaching device than those strategies using texts but employing other methods with texts. This is a not an unexpected result. Students, particularly disadvantaged students, do not generally look with great favor on their texts although material rewritten at a lower reading level has not much more appeal (Edgar, 1966; Guysenir, 1969).

The Abramowitz material which is deductive in nature yielded conflicting results when tested in two projects. Wilson (1967) found little improvement in knowledge while Baines (1968) found distinct knowledge gain when using this material supplemented by media. These results lead one to believe that there is promise for a didactic approach to teaching if the basic text materials are coupled with supplementary texts, films, filmstrips and other audio-visual materials.

When comparing approaches to conceptualizing information (Kamm, 1967) found that institutionalized disadvantaged secondary school students responded better to didactic methods than to more open-ended approaches. Greater knowledge gains occurred when the teachers gave direct explanations for conceptualizing in two different ways at one time. A structured, didactic strategy was thought to be more suitable to teaching these disadvantaged students since it was more in line with their background of authoritarianism and deficiency in formal language.

When attempting to draw implications regarding inductive versus deductive teaching strategies several factors must modify one's ideas on the efficacy of either method. The methods are not mutually exclusive--there are elements of induction within deductive strategies and elements of deduction within inductive methods. Good teachers at all school levels when adapting their teaching materials to the individual students also adapt teaching strategies to the requirements of the students. When students are inquiring they cannot be expected to "cover" the same amount of material as when the material is presented in a didactic fashion. Inquiry is a lengthy process. But it is a process that seems to result in learning albeit over a smaller amount of material and with greater understanding, retention, and interest. The outstanding inductive experimental studies have been conducted by researchers using either specially designed teaching materials or more conventional materials but with teachers who have had special training in investigative methods, questioning, and discussion techniques.

The key element seems to be structure within either of the strategies used. Structure or sequence in identifiable objectives to be accomplished and within and between the activities are specifically designed to reach the objectives of the lesson or lessons.

Interaction Strategies. Interaction between student and teacher or student and student seems almost a constant element in any instructional strategies. There is interaction in media, gaming, induction, role playing, questioning and in practically every teaching strategy except those that isolate this interaction in order to serve another purpose. Interaction may bring about positive or negative changes in cognition and/or attitudes.

Portugaly (1967) when working with kindergarten children did all teaching via manipulative devices and methods such as storytelling, dramatics, games, and riddles. As their teachers are aware, there are tremendous amounts of different types of interaction continually occurring among kindergartners. When using the materials Man: A Course of Study (Dow, 1969), observers noted that teachers talked less as the course proceeded and student dialogue and teacher-student dialogue increased. In fact, the concept of conveying information to students had to give way to student-teacher and student-student interaction. This resulted in positive cognitive gains. The length of discussions and choice of leader may be a factor in their effectiveness. When evaluating instruction including a television presentation One Nation Indivisible (Whitla, 1968) that stressed degrees of student involvement, the researchers found that male teachers seemed to stimulate more controversy and emotion than female teachers. It was also found that the most effective discussions were those of at least forty minutes duration and the discussions became less effective as they decreased in time. Brzeinski (1968) found in conducting studies with multiple groups that those groups that engaged in social activities (not specifically described, but implying interaction) with other treatments, scored higher than groups without this interaction. While no specific data were reported, Estes (1966) found that role-playing increased students' tolerance toward minorities and social isolates and resulted in increased cognitive gain.

A report of a summer seminar in Milwaukee (Ashbaugh, 1968) stated after groups of high school students both black and white were brought together to "meet each other and learn about the patterns that constitute prejudice" student attitudes showed a more negative view of blacks with little or no change in the views of whites. On the other hand, Fisher (1965), reported that when using a strategy of reading and discussion versus reading only, only the reading and discussion groups showed positive attitude changes toward the minority group studied (American Indians). Fisher also reported that if a positive change in cognition is to result discussion must also accompany reading.

In view of the above studies, it appears that interaction was reported in a number of studies with favorable results, and regardless of their school level, students generally and many teachers regard interaction favorably. Reading only and watching telecasts only do not increase cognition to the extent that these activities coupled with considerable interaction do. While the sex of the discussion leader may be a factor in the effectiveness of the discussion, it is probable that with training in discussion-leading skills, increased confidence, plus openness toward critical appraisal of opinions, the teacher can learn to be effective in these techniques.

Multiactivity Strategies. In actuality most studies of disadvantaged students involve a combination of varying teaching-learning techniques in which one of them may, but need not, predominate. The term "multiactivity approaches" is used here generically to identify a variety of those approaches that are not otherwise reported and that often appear together in instructional situations. For example, a unit is usually regarded as a way of organizing materials and procedures for instruction and ordinarily has as its core questions by students or teachers in a fashion similar to inductive strategies. The treatment can relate readily to school programs and practices. For instructional units usually include a variety of methodologies: questioning, resource visits, individual and group reading and study of sundry printed materials, audiovisual instruction, and many other procedures used in social studies instruction. Study and learning activity by students is the element common to these varying techniques.

An experiment (Portugaly, 1967) conducted with kindergarten children, and an ESEA Title I program (Wheeler, 1968) indicate that disadvantaged children's use of manipulative devices and learning experiences drawn from the immediate school community resulted in increased cognition. In both investigations the teachers were highly aware of immediate objectives for the children's learning. The Portugaly study especially indicated a positive cognitive gain and positive changes in attitude toward learning. While the Wheeler program yielded no experimental test data, the teachers who participated believed the program effective and that children learned more than in previously conducted programs.

In a comprehensive study (Brzeinski, 1968), samples of Negro, Hispanic (Spanish-speaking-Latin American background) and Anglo (white) students participated in varying approaches. The students in the activity-only group scored less well on tests of cognitive measures than students using activities combined with telecasts; however, Negroes in the activity-only program and Hispanic students scored higher than control group Negro students. Also significant attitude gains were observed in minority group students using the activity approach over the control group--the gains were particularly evident amont Negro students. Gornick (1967) used an activity approach with upper elementary grade students. He found the highest gains among low intelligence students with greater enthusiasm and motivation. However, the limited sample and its composition suggest care in applying the implications of this study. But since disadvantaged students often show depressed scores on group intelligence tests it is believed that this approach has promise for the disadvantaged. In a well-controlled study, Georgeoff (1967) found that a unit approach to Negro history yielded both positive information and attitude gains for Negro and white children.

King (1968) reports activities as being contributors to the success of a summer program for secondary students in which significant behavior changes in low income students were noted. In a second study reported by Murray (1968) higher test scores were found on a standardized test on government and a cohesive feeling developed among the group receiving activity-centered methods when there was reduced emphasis on reading activities and increased emphasis on field trips, films, and speakers. While the information acquisition was slightly greater, faculty and students indicated that the project group improved in general attitude toward school, the community, and themselves. North (1968) reports the activities of a center for Negro and Puerto Rican history, an African room and a Puerto Rican art gallery and other related areas. There are no objective data to support hoped-for improvement in self-concept of the minority groups visiting the center, however, subjective evaluations show that the center helped the students gain a better understanding and appreciation for the contributions of minority groups.

Activity centered approaches are being used successfully with disadvantaged and low intelligence elementary students. Multi-activities are more effective than are single or dual activities. Combinations of these examples of practices have promise for use with the disadvantaged elementary pupil: clearly stated, identifiable objectives, an emphasis on dramatics, storytelling, manipulative devices and tools, teacher-pupil planning, and construction activities.

Simulation Strategies. Gaming and other forms of simulation are thought to have special advantages for all students and particularly those that are disadvantaged. Simulation materials provide opportunities to participate in the process of planning and carrying through strategies, solving problems, and making decisions in emulation of decision makers in various organized social, economic and political activities. Some of the games involve a distinctive element of chance. Abt, in an occasional paper titled Games for Learning, Educational Services Incorporated, 1966, claims that they have the "advantages of dramatizing the limitations of effort and skill...encouraging the underachievers, making them particularly suitable for use with the disadvantaged child."

Research data on the efficacy of gaming when compared with traditional methodology is meager, especially lacking are data on the uses and effects of gaming with disadvantaged students. However, several writers do not hesitate to recommend gaming as a technique for all students, and on the basis of the experience they may be correct. Anyone who has spent time with students in classrooms is aware that many would prefer any form of a game to a traditional methodology. Research reports indicate that participants enjoy playing the game. They also mention that students, regardless of reading ability, have little difficulty with the strategy of games. They do have some difficulty verbalizing the strategy (McFarlane, 1969). Recognition that reports of gaming are most often written by those connected with the production of games tempers conclusions regarding their efficacy as a teaching-learning technique.

Blaxall (1965), in describing Abt Associates' experimental game program with disadvantaged youth, based his conclusions on observation, interviews, and teacher reactions regarding students involved in a special summer program. Some of his conclusions are possibly obvious: students were actively involved; student attention span was stretched; communication among students was encouraged; and classroom discipline was less of a problem. Other conclusions were less obvious: the self-teaching characteristic altered the teacher's role, allowing him to develop other relationships with his students; learning of abstract ideas was facilitated; and the games had relevance to student needs and interests. Because the disadvantaged student often ranks low in reading ability and intelligence test scores, and because of usual high student interest in gaming, simulation seems to hold potential as a strategy for teaching disadvantaged students.

In the matter of playing the game Farran (1968) found that individual competition produced more learning than did games in which students were grouped to compete. This is perhaps because formerly unsuccessful students achieved immediate personal success and resulting status and were thus more highly motivated than when status was shared with a group. However, Farran also found that in comparing group versus individual competition there was no difference in change of attitude toward learning. The optimum number of students playing a game at any one time was thought to be between twelve and fifteen. If more than fifteen students were playing at the same time, it required much more of the teacher's attention for the game to progress smoothly (Blaxall, 1965). It was also thought that if twenty or more students were playing, at least three teachers or game administrators were essential to the success of the game. It therefore, seems that gaming offers distinct potential for use with disadvantaged students because it does not depend so largely on reading achievement and it is enjoyed by both students and teachers. If, however, increased information gain is a goal, games involving individual competition are probably preferable for disadvantaged students.

Like gaming, case study and role-playing methods are often considered viable techniques to use with students generally. The lack of experimental data and the inadequacies in research design limit the usefulness of the conclusions drawn about role-playing and case study techniques. In one study, however, students using the case method both liked the method of instruction and believed that they learned more from the materials and teaching procedures (Jones, 1965). Regardless of race, higher intelligence students made significantly better information gains but the middle and low intelligence groups made greater attitudinal gains than the higher intelligence group did. The case method seemed to cause Mexican-American students to make the greatest attitude gains while making the lowest information gains. Negroes, who comprised the largest proportion of students, scored like the total sample in both attitude and information gains.

In a second study, this using simulation and role-playing as elements of the cases, Estes (1966) found that the case study groups _in toto_ learned greater tolerance toward minorities and social isolates and agreement with the subject matter of the cases which could be interpreted as information gain. Of concern was the result that racial minorities (not clearly identified) showed less tolerance and less information gain than did the majority population groups. The positive results of this study do support the use of simulation for increasing tolerance of students but it must be considered that the study also indicated lower tolerance after instruction in the groups that were more likely to be disadvantaged.

In view of the limited available research and design limitations in reported studies, the basis for judgment of the efficacy of simulation techniques for disadvantaged students is quite limited. It is possible to state that students and teachers enjoy simulation activities--this fact by itself is a strong positive note for the techniques. It is hoped that experiments with the many games now coming on the market will prove this methodology as viable a one as it has proved enjoyable.

Media

The section that follows attempts to synthesize the research reports on the efficacy of using various media with the disadvantaged student. Included are discussions of multimedia, textbooks, and tradebooks.

Multimedia. As might be expected, the studies that used television and films showed that elementary students gained in both knowledge and in attitude change. Since television and films are used usually in conjunction with other methodology or materials the results are to some extent inconclusive. Brzeinski (1968) found that experimental groups using telecasts only and telecasts coupled with field trips and classroom social activities increased in information and in attitude than groups who had none of these activities and those who had all the activities but the telecasts. Attitudes toward learning selected material were more favorable among groups using films and printed material; students believed that learning was easier when films were used (Dow, 1969). Knowledge increases with the use of television and films is fairly evident (Brzeinski, 1968); positive attitude change toward learning is evident; however, positive attitude change toward minority groups by students in different minority groups and among students in majority groups is not so evident. Positive attitude changes toward Negroes occurred when films of minority group individuals were shown to white elementary students. These films showed Negroes and whites in non-menial work. The results were more negative attitudes toward whites pictured and yet no more positive evaluation of the Negro pictures on the part of the Negro student. When the same films were shown in all white classes, more favorable ratings of both whites and Negroes occurred after viewing the films (Teahan, 1967).

A multimedia approach in teaching Negro history to whites and Negroes resulted in information gains for all students but no positive attitude gains toward Negroes (Muller, 1969). The same results were reported by Georgeoff (1967) for information gains; however, interracial preferences were expressed by the children, indicating some attitude gains.

When increased knowledge is the objective, the use of television, films and various media is justified. However, if positive attitude change of whites toward Negroes and Negroes toward whites is the desired outcome, the issue remains in doubt. Special programs stressing information acquisition through multimedia with elementary students yield positive results. Most who work with elementary youngsters generally would come intuitively to the same generalization. Since disadvantaged youngsters are not verbally oriented, at least not to the language of the public school, non-verbal learning materials yield more favorable results (Forester, 1968). Non-verbal learning may be part of the answer to learning problems of disadvantaged students. Certainly, the Dow (1969) program, a part of which was student excursions, and the informal evaluation statements of the New York City Negro and Puerto Rican supplementary education centers described by North (1968) favored this activity for disadvantaged students.

On the basis of the research evidence in the area of attitude toward others, the use of television and films with secondary students, as it is with elementary students, is a somewhat risky business. After testing the instructional television program One Nation Indivisible, Whitla (1968) found that of the small proportion of those who changed their attitude toward others, two-thirds changed in a positive direction (the desired change) but one-third changed in a negative direction. Not only is this a very small change in proportion to the total group, which would lead one to believe that the telecasts were not particularly effective, but one of three of those who changed moved in a negative direction. When testing white and non-white secondary school students, Teahan (1967) found only one area of great change after using films dealing with lives of successful Negroes and whites. This change came in the vocational aspirations of Negro students. But this gain must be balanced by more prejudice observed among high socio-economic class white students in that situation.

Using a multimedia program Muller (1969) found secondary school students increasing in knowledge of the Negro in American history. Also found was that positive attitude change toward Negroes did not occur. While the previous two statements indicate certain knowledge and attitude information, the teachers who participated in the study believed that they had been very successful in teaching American history. A large proportion thought they saw some positive attitude change in students toward various ethnic groups. Somewhat the same observations can be made about a study involving a curriculum laboratory containing collections of Afro-American materials and audiovisual equipment, that is, different perceptions of the results of the work with the materials and equipment. In this instance, the students rated the laboratory's book collection its primary strength while the teachers gave highest rating to the films and filmstrips.

Media for teaching Negro history have been quite scarce. Only slightly more than half the states have some type of material available for teachers. Most frequently available are bibliographies referring to books, periodicals, and audiovisual references (Goff, 1969).

It seems that the use of a multimedia approach with disadvantaged students when increased knowledge is the objective is a very legitimate approach. Increased information gains have been observed when media such as television, films, visual aids, and excursions were used. Usually media do not perform as well as desired unless coupled with another process or material but this does not present difficulties to most teachers. The opinions of teachers and students concerning the use of media are generally favorable. Particularly with the disadvantaged, non-verbal student, a multimedia approach is desirable when knowledge gain is the objective. On the other hand, when the primary objective is to change students' attitudes, favorable results are not so likely. Generally, results are positive with elementary age children--the younger they are the more impact teaching can make on their attitudes toward others. However, when older students are exposed to media and when the primary goal is attitudinal change media approaches have less success.

Textbooks. If there is a more maligned and villified aspect of elementary and secondary schooling than the teacher, it is the textbook. It is a tribute to either the textbook industry or to the committees that select texts for use in the school that public schools even harbor these instruments within their doors. Recently criticism of textbooks has shifted to focus on their ethnic content. From an examination of three current surveys of texts in use it is evident that the evaluators have strong common feelings about the shaded interpretations, the inaccuracies, and the omissions regarding minorities that are so prevalent in the published texts in use today. The apparent intent of these surveys was to document what was wrong with texts. It should also be noted that they lacked specific standards upon which to base judgments as well as, possibly, objectivity.

A majority of the criticism centers around textbook treatment of one or a combination of the following elements: Negroes, American history, or minority groups other than Negro. Three of the four surveys considered only secondary school textbooks. Only one included elementary school texts, and they composed only a small proportion of the books involved in that survey.

The most sweeping indictments focused on obvious errors of omission. The authors almost totally ignored Negroes in the development of the nation. If Negroes were mentioned, it was usually in a bland, innocuous, or uncontroversial manner. Second, an evident omission was the avoidance of the controversial or any unpleasant episodes relating to Negroes in the history of our country. The texts surveyed exhibited an almost total avoidance of the human element in the portrayal of minorities--that element that makes fiction and biography so fascinating to young people. Further, the texts misinterpreted or ignored the significance of the current civil rights movement and took a neutral stance on controversial issues, or as cited an "absence of moral stand" on the treatment of Negroes in the history of the nation (Stampp, 1964; Menge, 1968). Sloan (1968) in his analysis of secondary school history books gave much the same analysis and drew similar conclusions to those in the previously cited studies. However, Sloan contends that most of the newer editions are giving a fairer treatment to the role of the American Negro than earlier editions. Much the same observations were made by Carpenter and Rank (1968) but a violation called "lack of integration" was also noted. Texts usually isolate most references to minority groups from the course of history as it is presently treated, either ignoring multi-racial societies, mentioning minority groups in a chapter on civil rights, or simply referring to civil rights movements in the final chapters of the text. The Marcus (1961) analysis parallels the previously mentioned studies in regard to the treatment of Negroes in secondary school textbooks. Marcus does go a step further when he points out that there has been little improvement in the treatment of Asians and Spanish-speaking immigrants in the texts published in the decade of the 1950's. However, those texts reflected a more positive attitude about the immigrant's contribution to American society. Further the textbook treatment of Jews in world and American history books has been largely inadequate or incidental with the exception of "reasonably good discussions" of modern Israel.

Thus there are implications for textbook selections in schools. The selection committees should attempt to select texts that reflect the real world of the disadvantaged child--texts that illustrate inner-city neighborhoods with row houses and candy stores. Narrative and illustrations of minorities and majorities working on a joint endeavor would provide an element of realism that is lacking in most present texts. Since each student lives in some sort of community, one role of a textbook could be to help the student study his immediate community rather than provide readings on some mythical place that may have little relevance to his life.

Since the state of textbooks is generally in disrepute, what of the status of the traditional reliance on a text as the primary vehicle of social studies instruction for the disadvantaged student?

In a survey of outstanding teachers of disadvantaged children Cheyney (1966) found that a unit approach was favored over the testbook approach by middle grade elementary teachers while primary grade teachers were divided evenly as to the method they preferred. However, it should be considered that for years, outstanding teachers have not used the textbook to the exclusion of other instructional resources. Only in recent years have social studies texts even been provided pupils in some primary grades. The teachers queried believed that students learned and retained more content when taught by other-than-textbook media. In a study to determine the efficacy of tradebook versus text and pamphlet versus textbook-groups, it was found that there was no difference between groups in the amount of content learned, although the non-textbook groups seemed to retain more information than did the textbook-only group (Edgar, 1966). It should be considered that it is the rare student who will read his social studies textbook for fun while it is not unknown for even the slowest reader to become caught up in a book or a subject portrayed in one or more books for some time after the teacher has moved away from that subject.

The use of modified (lower reading level) text materials is widespread, but the effectiveness of these materials for the secondary school student is in doubt. Only when this type of materials is heavily supplemented with other texts, films, and other audiovisual materials were positive information gains observed (Baines, 1967; Wilson, 1967). However, student reaction to this type of material is favorable. Teacher reaction is also favorable (Uphoff, 1967). Results of the Baines and Wilson studies were inconclusive, and only two studies do not constitute a large enough sample upon which to base hard and fast decisions on the efficacy of this type of learning material.

It seems evident that the state of the textbook, particularly the American history text used in secondary schools, is poor. While the quality of the printing and the illustrations has steadily risen throughout the years, it is questionable whether the content of the text particularly in its treatment of minorities has kept pace. Perhaps the heavy reliance on the social studies text is a contributing factor in students disliking social studies and perhaps the unrealistic treatment and lack of relevance of Negro life in the past and the lack of relevance to the present have been contributing factors in the Negro student "turning off" social studies instruction as an inconsequential part of his education.

Tradebooks. Since much of social studies instruction deals with events that are removed in both time and space from most pupils' experience whether disadvantaged or otherwise, it is imperative that some vehicle be employed that can bring far away experiences within the purview of the student. Most common of these vehicles are textbooks, different sorts of visuals, and a growing number of tradebooks--non-fiction, biography and fiction. The published surveys that mention the treatment of minorities in tradebooks, the latest of which was dated 1964, indicated a very superficial treatment of minority groups particularly Negroes (Larrick, 1965). In numbers of books on the market these are a very small proportion of all books for young people. However, it would seem that there is an increased demand for tradebooks that feature minority group characters in realistic settings, therefore, a reasonable hypothesis would be that surveys over the period 1965 through 1969 would reveal that many more book publishers are responding to this market.

So that minority students can identify with the characters in fiction, it is desirable that these characters be portrayed as people really are and not simply as others (authors or publishers) would like them to be. This is not always the case. Minority group stereotypes are prevalent in the fictional literature. These are more complimentary stereotypes than those portrayed in children's periodical fiction and textbooks. Further children's fiction presents more than do textbooks up-to-date treatment of minorities, more intergroup cooperation and equality, and portrayal of minority group Americans as aspiring to "middle-class" values and standards of living (Gast, 1965).

The surveys of children's literature then indicate that of the tradebooks on the market or presently in school libraries that tell a story about American minorities are relatively few in proportion to the total number of fiction tradebooks in existence. In those books that portray characters from minorities, these characters are often stereotypes. Sometimes they are stereotyped in a complimentary fashion which does not truly represent the minorities in such a way that students can identify with them and learn vicariously from this experience.

It appears that the use of children's fictional literature and biography can effect changes in elementary student's attitudes. Simply reading this type of material does not necessarily increase the student's subject matter acquisition (Fisher, 1965). The research literature is plain that when disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged children read fictional literature that includes narrative and illustrations portraying minority groups their attitudes toward the minorities represented in the reading are positively changed (Fisher, 1965' and Litcher, 1969). Information acquisition by disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students when reading fictional literature is not different from students reading textbooks. However, when the teacher takes time to discuss the readings with the students not only do positive attitudinal changes result but increased cognitive changes also result.

When a literature-biography treatment was compared with a textbook treatment the literature-biography students scored as well on information acquisition as the students using the textbook (Edgar, 1966). In general, teacher and student reactions to the experimental treatment were positive plus the added positive element that the students did more reading in the experimental treatment than in the textbook treatment. The researcher suggests giving attention to the selection of the reading matter if these results are to be observed. These elements identified by Fisher relate to the form, place, time, and type of minority group characters portrayed in the fiction. Surprisingly, Fisher also found that no significant relationship existed between the students' ability to read (within reasonable limits) and positive attitude changes. The criteria for selecting the readings is more important in cognitive and attitude change than the reading difficulty of the material.

A limiting factor that may bear on this topic is the pattern of information retention prevalent among minorities. Gustafson (1957) found that members of ethnic groups tend to score higher on tests of characteristics of people in their own minority than they score on tests of minority group characteristics other than their own. They also tend to retain information about their own group longer than information about other groups. This generalization holds true for minorities except Negroes.

The data to support the above contentions for older students are remarkably scanty. Only one study (Murray, 1969) was identified that had any bearing on the use of tradebooks with students older than junior high age. This particular study was limited by several factors, among them the sampling procedure used and the very subjective rating scales administered to the teachers and the students. Liberal use of "high interest" literature was one of the identifiable media. From the availability of tradebooks it would seem that these were a likely source of teaching materials. This study supports significant improvements in the students' performance after teaching, subject, of course, to the previously mentioned reservations. Tenuous as it may be, this study, when considered with the previously cited studies, seems to indicate that positive attitude change is possible with use of high interest literature.

Positive attitude changes toward minorities can be brought about among disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged students by reading selected literature whose subject matter favorably but realistically treats the selected minorities. However, if higher cognition is to come about the tradebook reading must be acoompanied by discussion.

School Organization and Other Factors. There seems to be a remarkable lack of information on the effects of class size and intra- and inter-class grouping on the learning processes of disadvantaged students. There is some research on the effects of inter-class grouping (homogeneous, ability) on the slow learning student which may account for the lack of experimentation with disadvantaged students. In an article published in the April, 1961, issue of Educational Leadership titled "Grouping: What Have We Learned?" Maurice Bash sums up the available research with the generalizations that homogeneous grouping has little effect on the fast learning student, somewhat less desirable effects on the average, and detrimental effects on the slow learning student. The contention is that when deprived of the stimulation of the faster learner the slower learner suffers.

Bash's generalization is supported by a study of fast and slow learning seventh-graders who were grouped either homogeneously or heterogeneously for instruction. The results of the two-year study indicated positive knowledge improvements in the slow-learning students in heterogeneous classrooms. More positive self-concepts were developed by the slow learners placed in heterogeneous classrooms, although they believed that others did not necessarily view them in a more positive way (Stoakes, 1964). While the research on the effects of grouping on slow learning students is inconclusive, teachers persist in favoring homogeneous grouping. Uphoff (1967) reports that grouping procedures are widely used and favored by both teachers and administrators. Small classes also allow students to function more freely, involve themselves in more investigative and discussion activities (Dow, 1969). Usually, small classes are favored by teachers. Such teachers apparently show greater enthusiasm, report more student interest, greater pupil achievement, and better student attitude (Uphoff, 1967).

The one project that reported data on a program involving team teaching in a block of time reported positive results with secondary school students. Although the study was not well controlled, the students made information gains over the period of study. Of course, it is difficult to definitely state whether these gains are attributable to the three teachers rated "excellent", the multi-media approach, or possibly a Hawthorne effect (Murray, 1968). Increased information gains is reported by the Dade County Public Schools (Young, 1967) in which a three hour block of time was devoted to individualized instruction in several subjects one of which was social studies. Limitations of the research design make it hazardous to attempt to generalize from this study.

Summer programs seem to contribute to the information gain of disadvantaged students when certain instructional elements are present. Summer institutes in which instruction approximates that of the regular term is of doubtful value. The summer programs that produced gains were those that broke with the regular pattern of instruction by using selected teachers, small group instruction, comprehensive use of films, field trips, and high interest literature, that were upgraded in organization, and in which instruction was placed in a non-school setting (King, 1968). This program focused on information acquisition of students and did not attempt attitude change in the participating students. The programs that focused on attitudinal factors (Milwaukee, 1968) and included Negro and white students produced more negative views of Negroes on the part of the white students and little or no change in the ways whites were viewed. Teachers believed that the elementary and secondary students learned more in the Kansas City (Wheeler, 1968) summer program but test scores showed no appreciable gain. In this program, the materials of instruction were drawn from the surrounding community; teachers were provided with lengthy planning periods. The teachers considered six or eight weeks of instruction not long enough in which to fully develop their lessons. On the positive side, the teachers also believed that the instructional materials they were able to develop themselves were the primary factor in making the program a success. Many stated that they could really meet the needs of the students by preparing instructional materials especially for them.

It seems evident that administrative organization does not have a great effect on the achievement of disadvantaged students. To return to the previously cited Bash study, the major element that affects a difference in learning of the slow student is not administrative organization but the learning materials and considerations of curriculum and the teacher. It is known that homogeneously grouped classrooms are detrimental to the knowledge gain and self-concept of the slow learner and by implication the disadvantaged student. There is some evidence (Roth, 1969) indicating that segregated elementary classrooms work against positive attitude development toward those of other races.

As is evident from the summer institute programs carried on for students having school difficulties, the most successful were those programs that departed from the normal pattern of instruction. From the previously cited studies, it is evident that the administrative pattern will make little difference in the achievement of disadvantaged students. The elements that seem to make a difference are: specially selected teachers, curriculum that takes advantage of the needs of the students in relation to their immediate surroundings, and the use of multimedia including field trips and printed materials other than the regular social studies textbook. Other administrative factors that seem to influence informational gain of students are teacher planning time, class size not to exceed fifteen students, and the use of a non-graded pattern of organization.

Summary and Recommendations. At this point in the study it becomes possible to draw some conclusions and make recommendations regarding the usefulness of different strategies and media with the disadvantaged student. It is possible to state that inductive strategies are more widely used, students like them better, teachers believe that all levels of students learn more and retain more of what they learn than by deductive strategies. However, these statements must be tempered by the idea that very few deductive strategies have been tested with samples of disadvantaged students. The ones that are available have used deductive strategy in highly structured programs that included specific objectives and activities sequenced directly toward the objectives. Other than these structured programs, the references to deductive strategies in the Study are largely to control group comparisons. There is evidence, however, that deductive strategies work with the disadvantaged if the material that is the vehicle of content is either supplemented by readings, films, telecasts, and other audiovisuals or is highly structured and sequenced.

Successful programs for the disadvantaged seem to be those that involve a variety of activities and require interaction between teacher and student and student and student. The successful multiactivity strategies draw from the immediate world of the student. They almost force the student to inquire about his surroundings through techniques of field trips and other investigative, activity-centered work.

Discussions seem to be required for knowledge gain when the media of films, filmstrips, telecasts, texts, and tradebooks are used. These learning media, that is, textbooks and tradebooks, cannot be considered together because the use of each produces distinctive results. For example, television and films when supplemented by other media and student interaction produce the desired knowledge ends. When they are not supplemented they are of much less value. Student attitudes toward others can be positively influenced by readings in which minority group characters are portrayed in the illustrations and named in the narrative. Unless the teacher discusses the readings with the student, increased understanding will not as likely be forthcoming.

Simulation strategies are generally successful in producing information gain. The success of role-playing and the study of cases in attitudinal change is dependent on the content that is being used, that is, conflict-type content or content that threatens the student. Particularly the threatened secondary school student tends toward attitude change in a negative direction. Gaming is a successful strategy for bringing about information gains. This strategy is enjoyable for disadvantaged students. Success in gaming is not reported to be dependent on the reading level of the student. In view of these ideas, gaming should be included in programs for the disadvantaged whenever possible.

With the exception of grouping patterns, school organization, class size, and different time allotments seem to have little effect on knowledge acquisition and attitude change. It is thought that homogeneous grouping has detrimental effects on the slower learning student and by implication on the disadvantaged. These students seem to need the stimulation of the faster learner. Furthermore, the student's concepts of self are not as good when he is always grouped with others of low status.

This summary suggests the following recommendations for use of strategies and media in teaching social studies to and about the disadvantaged:

1) Inductive strategies should include discussion and other interaction activities.

2) Deductive strategies should be supplemented with media and be structured toward the objectives identified as the focus for the lessons.

3) Multiactivity programs can include the first-hand experiences needed by the disadvantaged.

4) Audiovisual media can provide needed vicarious experiences and promote information gains especially when accompanied by student interaction.

5) If desired knowledge gains are to be made, textbooks need to be heavily supplemented with activities, interaction, and audiovisuals.

6) Simulation strategies can be used to provide information and should be used in place of some of the more conventional strategies.

7) Tradebooks may take the place of or at least should supplement textbooks.

8) Students should be placed in heterogeneous multiethnic groups for more learning and better self-concepts to be developed.

School Levels

Elementary. Information gain, interest, and enthusiasm are concepts that seem to convey researchers', teachers', and students' impressions of inductive strategies. Usually the increased knowledge gain is accompanied by greater retention of information. The elements of induction--posing questions, seeking answers, and generalizing from collected data to solve problems--whether using the name induction or problem-solving--seem to be the most used and a most promising strategy for disadvantaged elementary youngsters. Certainly, the elements of high interest and enjoyment are factors that cannot be ignored by the teacher of the disadvantaged. For so much of this child's school work is taught in a traditional fashion as content to be mastered, content that is seemingly unrelated to his life and is not meaningful to him, the youngster simply turns the teacher off.

This is not to say that there is no place for deductive strategies. Most authorities who write in elementary school social studies agree that the use of the strategies is not a either-or proposition. Rather, good teachers apply elements of both when appropriate for their students. Evidence exists that elementary students do make cognitive gains when taught via deductive strategies. In those instances where the greatest gain occurred with deductive strategies, the strategy was either supplemented by readings, discussions, films, filmstrips, or other audiovisuals, or was highly structured and sequential in teaching-learning objectives and activities to accomplish these objectives.

As pointed out in the previous section, interaction between students and students, and students and teacher is one process that makes deductive strategies effective. Most often interaction is thought of as discussion. However, at the kindergarten and elementary level interaction may take place during teacher-pupil planning sessions, group and committee work, during research and construction activities--there is almost no end to the instances in which these may occur. It should be noted that interaction without awareness of learning objectives on the part of the teacher and pupils is just talking and as such probably would not accomplish the desired objectives. Planned interaction is the desirable process or interaction based upon identified objectives. Certainly, the grade level and the materials used are factors affecting the amount and quality of the interaction that occurs. Kindergarten programs of necessity are interactive; the most successful ones with the disadvantaged are those carefully sequenced in terms of the content covered, have definite objectives, and involve interactive elements such as games, storytelling, dramatics and different "play" type activities. The materials employed can almost force interaction. When using the program One Nation Indivisible the teachers seemed to move away from the role of information given toward reactor to the students and the material.

Studies of elementary age children suggest that activity approaches yield both increased cognitive gain and attitude gain.

The attitude change takes the form of positive attitude gains in the direction desired by the teacher or the materials designer. The attitude gain is further described by teachers as increased enthusiasm for the study on the part of the disadvantaged youngster. Except with kindergarten children, activities without some accompanying structured learning process do not enable children to make as much knowledge gain as to those strategies that make use of an information input plus one or more activities to reinforce the knowledge input.

The advantages of gaming, role-playing and other simulation approaches for disadvantaged youngsters are apparent. They are enjoyable, success in gaming is not seriously limited by the child's reading ability, purposeful communication between students is encouraged, classroom discipline is less of a problem, and, to a large extent, simulation approaches are self-teaching. The active-involvement element inherent in these approaches has particular appeal for the disadvantaged child. However, the lack of research evidence on the efficacy of simulation techniques compared with more conventional methodologies somewhat restricts the possible judgments that can be made on this approach. Nevertheless, it is safe to conclude that simulation approaches have promise for the disadvantaged youngster.

Multimedia cannot stand alone as a productive approach to teaching disadvantaged elementary students. Media needs to be studied and not merely displayed, that is, it must be combined with other approaches to produce increased knowledge and attitude changes in these children. The research reports increased gains using films, telecasts, and other media with various strategies. Because of the seeming lack of in-school verbal facility of the disadvantaged child, good results occur when media are combined with other elements such as discussions, field trips, supplementary reading, and classroom interaction activities. The key idea seems to be active involvement of the student. Disadvantaged children do not learn as well by passively watching or listening; they respond more fully when actively involved in the learning process.

From the available data it is impossible to determine the exact status of elementary textbooks in regard to treatment of minorities. At least four analyses of secondary school texts have been made, only one of which included elementary texts. However, it is possible to state that upper elementary grade teachers do not favor a textbook approach to teaching; primary grade teachers are not so definite. In general, elementary teachers believe that children learn more and retain more if materials beyond the text are used. This is not to say that textbooks should be totally ignored by teachers of disadvantaged children. Statements in previous sections point out that children can learn if texts are used but supplemented by field trips, films, filmstrips, discussion, and other interaction approaches.

Children can learn about other times and places far removed from their immediate surroundings and positive attitude changes can be accomplished by reading tradebooks. If teachers will take time to discuss the tradebook content with the children both changed attitudes and increased knowledge gain can take place. This finding has very positive implications for all children and particularly the disadvantaged. It would be the ususual child that would prefer his textbook to a tradebook. Since this is the case, it becomes imperative that the tradebooks selected by teachers are those that present information that is relevant to the child's life and that represents minorities as minorities really are. Tradebooks do stereotype minority groups but these stereotypes are usually of a positive nature. They usually portray minorities in a more up-to-date fashion than do textbooks.

The criteria for book selection are more important to information gain and attitude change than is the difficulty of the material. These criteria relate to the form, place, time, and types of minority group characters portrayed in books. The most valuable tradebooks have some identifiable relation to the child's life. The books that are selected should describe minority and majority groups as these people actually are.

While there was little experimental research on the effects of administrative organization of the learning of the disadvantaged elementary child, some ideas can be gleaned from the research performed on the non-disadvantaged. From the lack of research reported it would seem that there is little concern for grouping patterns or that the question is already answered. The presently available research leads one to believe that homogeneous grouping is detrimental to the slow learning elementary student. This suggests that the same is true for the disadvantaged child. However, some teachers and administrators persist in the notion that it is easier to teach children grouped so that the range of individual differences is lessened. This notion implies an issue: is the more pertinent question "Is it our business to make teaching easier for the teacher?" or is the question, "How can learning be made most efficient for the learner?" There is some evidence that pupils' attitudes toward others can be positively influenced by planned learning experiences with children of other races or by integration of racial and ethnic groups in elementary classrooms.

At this time there is no hard evidence to support or reject ideas on class size or graded or non-graded school organization. It does seem reasonable that since disadvantaged students profit most from active involvement in the learning process, classes should be small enough to enable teachers to give attention to students on an individual and small group basis. Further, it seems reasonable that a non-graded school organization would eliminate at least part of the failure syndrome that is now encouraged by the graded school. By doing away with the idea of failure in favor of continuous progress no matter how small, the disadvantaged child's concept of worth would be enhanced.

Secondary. Inductive and deductive teaching strategies are not mutually exclusive; although the preponderance of literature published during the last few years might make one think otherwise. The paucity of experimental studies with disadvantaged students at the secondary level make any conclusions regarding efficacy on inductive versus deductive strategies quite tenuous. However, the reported research using samples of disadvantaged students reflects that induction is more widely used in experimentation. The most successful of these are programs that employ materials especially designed for induction or programs in which the teachers have had training in inductive methodology. The more successful studies in which deductive strategies were tested are those which supplemented the basic material and strategy with other media--films, filmstrips, and other audiovisuals.

Students seem to enjoy inductive learning more than deductive. As might be expected, the higher intelligence students take the greatest information gain but it is important to note that middle and lower intelligence students make comparatively greater gains in attitudes when inductive strategies are employed.

Because of the nature of induction, teachers must prepare for more in-depth study of the content they are teaching. Induction is a lengthy process--schools must be prepared to "cover" less content when this strategy is widely used. However, is this necessarily a drawback? Do disadvantaged students need exposure to a broad range of content or might they profit more from intensive study and greater resulting understanding of smaller segments of useful and relevant content?

Several projects report positive cognitive gains for secondary school students when using strategies involving degrees of interaction. Certainly, purposeful interaction between teacher and student and among students can supplement other teaching strategies. A key factor in success seems to be the type of interaction and the purpose for the interaction. Results on attitude testing following interactive sessions between majority and minority groups are mixed. In some instances the results are positive and in some negative. Since the negative attitudes seem to develop when students interact while studying conflict topics, it may be that the media to which the students react rather than the process of interaction cause negative attitude development. In other instances in which students worked together, engaged in discussions and role-playing, positive attitudes were developed. It is well documented that student interaction following deductive teaching presentations have brought about increased knowledge gains. However, the case for interaction in the area of attitude development for secondary school students is not so evident. Teachers should be quite cautious in their selection of materials and content prior to student involvement, making certain that they consider the maturity of the students in relation to the type of material used.

Multiactivity programs are being attempted with disadvantaged secondary school students, particularly in summer programs. It seems that when these remedial programs are in the planning stages the planners choose types of activities that are not normally used during regular terms and attempt a wide variety of vicarious and first-hand experiences for their students. This is not to find fault with this type of approach. On the contrary, it seems ludicrous that heavy emphasis on activity-type programs is usually limited to summer programs when teachers intuitively know that students like this type of work, are able to find success through it, and learn from it. Perhaps since such enrichment requires smaller classes and more time in both preparation and in execution, it is not possible during the regular term. Nevertheless, for disadvantaged students multiactivity programs seem to increase understanding of what is being studied and his liking for learning and for school.

Simulation type strategies are gaining favor among teachers and students in secondary schools. Every study reporting results of gaming, role-playing, or the use of case studies reports positive knowledge gain for the participants. Very few gaming situations deal with attitude development or even have attitude dimensions except that all report that students liked playing the game. In the case of disadvantaged students it seems that individual competition is more desirable to students than group competition perhaps because when they win they immediately receive personal gratification that need not be shared with a group of winners. It would be nice to be able to report the same type of results with case studies and role-playing but it is not. It is known that students increase their understanding through use of cases and role-playing but the attitude dimension is mixed. In one instance low intelligence (not necessarily disadvantaged) students made greater attitudinal gains than did higher intelligence students, but in another instance less tolerance and less information resulted on the part of the minority group students who participated.

It is possible to state that since students enjoy simulation exercises and do learn from them they should be incorporated into the methodology repertoire of the teacher. However, the school should proceed very cautiously in attempting to influence students' attitudes toward others via simulation strategies.

When the primary objective is knowledge gain, programs using multimedia have a high chance of success. When attitude change is the desired end, media approaches seem to have much less chance of causing changes in a positive direction. For some time educators have believed that by teaching or providing information about other people, attitudes towards those people, would automatically improve. The data seem to reveal somewhat different results when secondary school students are exposed to films and telecasts of others. It seems that while an information base may remain an important part in attitude formation, it cannot be considered as anything but an information base. The crucial element seems to be the content of the media. If the content stresses minority groups in a threatening manner or if the content is conflict-oriented, the chances are good that white students will react negatively, that is, negative attitude changes will occur. At the same time no more positive attitudes toward whites are developed by Negro students. Therefore, when schools want to improve the information base of disadvantaged students the use of media is justified but schools are cautioned to tread warily when using media as a medium for attitudinal change with secondary school students.

Heavy reliance on the textbook as the prime medium for secondary school students is a very questionable practice. Analyses of current textbooks reveal gross inadequacies in the treatment of minorities and modern civil rights movements. Racial issues are most often ignored or isolated from the main stream of our Nation's history. The studies reporting data on the use of the textbook and modified textbooks report positive results only when these materials are heavily supplemented with audio-visuals and other readings. It seems then that texts, when used, should be chosen with careful consideration for: historical accuracy, realistic treatment of minorities and immigrants, their contributions to the development of our country, and integration of references to multi-racial societies in the course of history. When tests are used with secondary school students they should be considered only one tool among many necessary for teaching.

As in the case of textbooks, tradebooks suffer from somewhat the same maladies but to a lesser extent. Published surveys indicate that minorities are treated superficially and that minorities are stereotyped but not to the extent that they are in textbooks. Students react positively to tradebooks. Students can learn as well through tradebooks as they can when textbooks are used. Students read more too. There is some evidence to make one think that tradebooks can have a positive effect on secondary school students' attitudes toward others. Schools should attempt to acquire tradebooks that parallel courses of study and use them as a major tool for learning or at least as a supplementary device.

Ability grouping is often favored by teachers and school administrators. The form of grouping that most affects disadvantaged students is ability grouping. The available research literature relates that in particular this type of grouping penalizes the slower learning student. When students are grouped homogeneously they seem to suffer in both subject matter acquisition and in self-concept.

Small classes make sense especially for the disadvantaged. Small classes afford opportunities for students to interact with each other and their teachers and allow teachers to depend on activity-centered teaching strategies. The more successful programs are those that utilize a combination of school organization factors: small classes, blocks of time, provision for teacher planning, and instruction in a non-school setting. Further, these programs used combinations of multimedia, interaction, and multiactivity strategies. Which of these factors or which combination of factors make the important difference is impossible to say.

Summary and Recommendations. Authorities in the field of elementary and secondary school teaching strategies seem to favor inductive strategies and the available research seems to bear them out. However, most also contend that it is incorrect to depend wholly on either strategy. The evidence indicates that of the two strategies students are more likely to make greater gains when taught inductively. In order to realize information gains when deductive strategy is used, the strategy must be supplemented with media, readings, or discussions. An alternative would be to structure the learning materials and activities so they lead sequentially to the accomplishment of the learning objectives.

When considering interaction strategy, the key word is purposeful. The teacher and the pupils must know the goals toward which they are working. Interaction without purpose is just talking. The same is true for multiactivity strategies. Planting tulips when studying the Netherlands or by making styrofoam igloos when studying about the Eskimos is not only busywork activities but can convey misinformation. The activities that both elementary and secondary students engage in must be purposeful and lead toward a specific objective.

Games are enjoyable to all students. Success in gaming is not directly related to the students' reading ability. The activity inherent in gaming and other simulation techniques is appealing to the disadvantaged student. Although there is no research comparing gaming with conventional methods, it would seem that this approach has great potential.

When using audiovisual media, best results occur when the media is supplemented by discussion, field trips, supplementary reading, and classroom social activities. Since disadvantaged children are not attuned to the language of the school, audiovisuals offer an approach that does not penalize the student for his lack of ability to use the language of the school.

When textbooks and selected tradebooks are compared the tradebooks invariably come out ahead. Textbooks stereotype minorities more than do tradebooks; selected tradebooks stereotype but in a positive way. Students like historical fiction and biography, but has the reader seen many students reading textbooks for fun? The available research leads one to believe that as much can be learned from reading tradebooks as from reading texts and more positive attitudes toward others developed at the same time. Textbooks have errors of commission and omission with regard to minorities and civil rights movements. In short, they are inadequate as the major vehicle of social studies instruction for students generally and for disadvantaged students.

When school social studies programs are organized in non-school settings, use selected teachers, provide teacher planning time and two or three more blocks of time, information gains are observed as well as positive attitudes developed toward learning and school. Which of these factors is primarily responsible for these results is not known. It does seem reasonable that when a program significantly departs from the regular pattern of school in which the disadvantaged student often encounters failure and frustration its chances to succeed are greatly enhanced.

Elementary Summarized. At the elementary school level teachers believe that more knowledge gain and more retention occurs when inductive teaching strategies are used. Deductive strategies need to be supplemented by discussions, or the materials and activities need to be highly structured and sequential to lead to the desired objectives. When purposeful activities are used to reinforce inductive, and particularly deductive, teaching strategies knowledge gains occur. Students seem to require an element of knowledge input then some activity to reinforce that input.

Simulation is considered a viable strategy for the elementary pupil particularly since success in gaming seems to be independent of a pupil's reading ability. Games are largely self-teaching, active and cause high degrees of pupil involvement.

Audiovisual media cannot stand alone. Students will not profit by just watching the "show"--the media must be studied. Some operation upon the knowledge resulting from the presentation must occur if knowledge gains are to be realized. Therefore, if audio-visual media are used, and it is considered particularly good with the disadvantaged student, it must be supplemented by activity and interaction.

Textbooks are not generally favored by elementary teachers. They believe that pupils learn and retain more if texts are combined with other media, interaction, or activities. Tradebooks are effective in producing both knowledge gain and attitudinal change in elementary pupils. Reading stories featuring characters from other races can positively influence pupils' attitudes toward that minority group. If discussion or some type of purposeful activity is then undertaken, knowledge gains shall occur. Even more than the reading difficulty of the book is the criteria by which the book is selected. Teachers who choose tradebooks for their pupils must be aware of and apply the content of the criteria mentioned in the first section of this Study.

Factors of school organization are not as numerous as with secondary school students. However, grouping patterns in which the students have opportunities to work with those of different abilities and racial and ethnic backgrounds are considered desirable. Non-graded school organization is also considered to have promise for the disadvantaged. Since this type of organization eliminates the concept of failure, the elementary school pupil is not continually confronted with his shortcomings.

Secondary Summarized. At the secondary school level there seems to be more experimentation with inductive teaching strategies than with deductive. The more successful inductive programs are those which use materials especially designed for induction and teachers who have been specially trained in the methodology. Negative results are observed with black and white students when they react to conflict-type materials and topics but when the students work together in discussion and role-playing activities positive feelings towards the other racial group seem to result. Multiactivity approaches can provide some of the experiences disadvantaged students need. Simulation strategies result in positive knowledge gains with secondary school students; they seem to react particularly well to individual competition perhaps because gratification that comes with success need not be shared. Because of the verbal nature of this student, audiovisual media seems to be quite successful in producing knowledge gains. But audiovisual media must be combined with interaction and activity work if it is to be successful in modifying attitudes toward others.

Secondary school social studies textbooks are considered inadequate in their treatment of minorities and contemporary civil rights affairs. Both errors of commission and omission are noted in the historical treatment of minority groups.

The administrative arrangements that are considered effective are small classes, two or three hour blocks of time, and teacher planning time. These make activity-type programs possible. In addition to the administrative arrangements, an element of successful summer programs was that instruction was conducted in a non-school setting, that is, these programs did not conform to the ordinary instructional pattern.

This summary indicates the following recommendations for elementary and secondary school levels in using strategies and media to teach social studies to and about the disadvantaged:

1) Students should be exposed to both inductive and deductive strategies.

2) Deductive strategies should include discussion and other interaction activities, or the materials and activities used should be highly structured to lead to the identified objectives.

3) When the content of instruction is comparable, simulation strategies should be used as the vehicle of instruction.

4) Audiovisual media should be supplemented by interaction and multiactivity strategies.

5) When tradebooks with appropriate content are available, they should be used in place of textbooks.

6) Students should be grouped in classrooms so that they have opportunities for contact with students of other racial and ethnic groups.

Types of Learning

Cognitive Development. When measured against the criteria of high information gain and high levels of interest, inductive strategies seem to come out ahead. The sparseness of experimentation with deductive strategies makes it difficult to generalize. However, it can be stated that in the few studies using deductive strategies, the elementary children made information gains but important gains occurred only when the deductive strategy was accompanied by discussions or other form of student or teacher interaction or if the materials were of a highly structured nature. If inductive strategies are to be used the school must be prepared to accept the fact that the elementary children will not be able to cover so many topics. The process is more time-consuming than deductive strategies.

The generalizations stated above also apply to junior and senior high school students. Usually they enjoy inductive strategies; information gains are made, as might be expected, the highest information gains are made by the highest IQ students. Secondary school students can also learn using deductive strategies. However, the deductive strategy must be supplemented by other texts, audiovisuals, or some type of interaction if significant information gains are to be observed.

Interaction between student and student and teacher and student seems to be an important part of the cognitive style of students. Deductive teaching strategies do not result in nearly so much informational gain unless they are accompanied by some sort of interaction. The nature of inquiry and inductive strategies implies interaction but the nature of deductive strategies does not; therefore, there is a need for interaction to supplement didactic teaching styles.

For students at all school levels, interaction can take the form of discussions, role-playing, reacting to readings, reacting to case studies, or as one researcher described it--classroom social activities. As most would know by intuition, purposeless interaction will not lead to the desired goals. The interaction would need to be directed, purposeful, with both the teacher and student aware of the desired outcomes.

Since disadvantaged students are severely limited by the language of the school, it follows that if they are to find success they would find it through activity-centered programs. This idea seems to hold true for kindergarten through high school. In most instances, the multiactivity programs stress first hand experiences in which the students study their immediate surroundings through manipulative activities, field trips, and resource persons. Reduced emphasis on reading activities, more emphasis on project-type work, short-term goals immediately attainable through enjoyable activities; these seem to be the types of learning tasks that make sense to disadvantaged students.

Every study reporting the use of simulation reported information gains on the part of the participants. Whether the students were black or white, elementary or secondary, and whether the simulation activity was gaming, role-playing, or case studies, the students made knowledge gains. The obvious conclusion to be drawn from this is that students learn via simulation activities. Since they do learn, these techniques should be included as strategies for use with disadvantaged students. However, one must temper these conclusions with the fact that the available games are quite limited in content scope. Most of the experimentation has been done with non-disadvantaged students. However, since it is known that students enjoy simulation and these techniques are not so dependent on the student's ability to read or his intelligence level, it is thought that the above conclusions are valid for the disadvantaged.

If increased knowledge of social studies content is the primary objective, multimedia are viable approaches for both elementary and secondary school students. Television, filmstrips, films and other audiovisual media seem to increase the information acquisition of students. Although the use of these media has positive effects on learning, the information gain is substantially increased if these strategies are combined with activities such as field trips, discussions, and classroom interaction. It is once again evident that audiovisual strategies are appealing to non-verbal students, perhaps because media helps to circumvent the difficulties most of these students have with reading.

Generally teachers of disadvantaged students believe that heavy reliance on texts result in less learning and less retention than the use of other media. However, at least two studies in which textbooks were compared with text plus pamphlet and tradebooks revealed no difference in learning between the textbook groups and the other groups. But, the non-text groups seemed to retain more of what they had learned. This finding makes one think that reliance on other-than-textbook media is in order for the disadvantaged student. The use of textbook-type material when modified for slow learners or disadvantaged students did not produce strong information gains unless the material was heavily supplemented with audiovisuals and activities.

Therefore, it seems that disadvantaged students using tradebooks made as much knowledge gain as they do then using textbooks. Tradebooks must deal with the same content as the texts for this to be true. However, since students enjoy reading tradebooks, it seems that teachers would be ahead if they placed more emphasis on the acquisition and use of other-than-textbook media.

The research reports relating to information gain through the use of tradebooks are few. However, the few that are available speak authoritatively. Everyone knows that children like reading fiction and biography. It is known that by reading fiction and biography children make as great a subject matter gain as do textbook groups. When these readings are discussed, students make greater subject matter gains than do textbook groups. Of course, a primary hindrance to the use of this form of media is that tradebooks do not parallel the content taught in the schools. For example, a survey of the period of history from 1861 through 1865, would reveal numerous tradebooks and biographies suitable to an upper elementary grade level on Lincoln, Grant, and Lee, but once these persons are read about there are too few others that are the subjects of biographical writing to flesh out this period of our history. Be that as it may, a school district that is diligent in its search could, over a period of a few years, amass a great number of tradebooks and could cover large segments of the social studies curriculum with readings from these.

With the exception of interclass (homogeneous, ability) grouping the organization of the school seems to have little influence on knowledge acquisition of the disadvantaged student. It is thought that homogeneous grouping is detrimental to the slower learning student; it follows that this type of grouping will also have negative effects on the disadvantaged.

Teachers and administrators believe that by lowering the student-teacher ratio increased knowledge acquisition will result. While definite research is lacking on the effects of class size with the disadvantaged, this hypothesis, so widely accepted as fact, may also force teachers to perform differently when working with small classes and thus "prove" their contention. Of course, reduced class size makes activity and investigative strategies possible and leads to greater teacher enthusiasm factors which may influence learning.

Programs using two and three hour blocks of time and summer programs seemed to positively influence the knowledge level of students. However, it is questionable whether these are the deciding factors in the success of the programs since the programs used especially selected teachers, a multimedia approach, individualized and small group instruction in a non-school setting.

In general, with the exception of grouping patterns, the organization of the school program is not as great an influence on subject matter acquisition as factors such as having selected teachers, departing from the regular pattern of instruction, heavy reliance on media and activity strategies, and making the curriculum of the program relevant to the lives of the students.

Affective Development. Inductive teaching strategies support the idea of attitudinal change but most of the attitude changes that were reported were attitudes toward school and learning. Attitude changes toward others (members of minority groups toward majority groups or vice versa) are not so evident in the reported research on inductive strategies. Existing evidence, tenuous at best, indicates that attitudes toward others can be positively changed through inductive strategies but more studies are needed before a definite statement can be made with regard to elementary children. A well-conceived and executed study on the effects of reading and reading-and-discussion on attitude changes of elementary children indicates that reading alone can lead to positive attitude change. This idea is reinforced by a study in which white children made positive attitude changes toward others after using multi-ethnic readers.

Interaction can produce both positive and negative attitude changes toward others. Those interaction situations that produced negative changes were those that involved television, the content of which was racial conflict, and the other, an interschool summer seminar that brought Negroes and white secondary school students together to explore patterns constituting prejudice. The situations producing positive attitude changes were those in which the students reacted to materials--cases, readings, and media--telecasts. The deciding factor may be the content to which the students were reacting, that is, content stressing conflict may, in itself, produce conflict and negative attitudes toward minority and majority groups on the part of the participating students.

Interaction is clearly a useful strategy for producing cognitive gains. However, in the area of attitudes toward others, interaction strategies are on much more tenuous grounds. If teachers are to produce positive attitudes change in their pupils, they must be quite selective in their choice of materials upon which to base their teaching.

Better attitudes toward learning and school and a more cohesive feeling toward the group are advantages that seem to accrue through multiactivity programs. Each study that used multiactivities reported positive attitude gain for its participants. These gains were expressed as either increased positive feelings toward school and learning, a more cohesive feeling toward the group, or positive attitude gain on the part of the blacks for the whites and the whites for the blacks.

At the secondary school level the research reveals that positive attitude changes toward others can be brought about through case study and role-playing. These techniques were highly relevant to the lives of the participants, thus the students became emotionally involved in the situation.

None of the studies reporting on gaming contained attitude dimensions. But students liking this technique imply that the use of games might have a positive influence on their attitudes toward the school and learning. Case study and role-playing can have significant effects on students' attitudes. Surprisingly, middle and low intelligence students made greater positive attitude changes than did high intelligence students when case study techniques were used. In this same study, Mexican-Americans made the greater attitude changes, while Negroes scored the same as all the other students tested. Another project using case study techniques reported that the majority groups learned greater tolerance toward the others but that racial minorities showed less tolerance after instruction.

These studies imply that case methods and role-playing could be useful techniques for influencing majority group attitudes but that caution should be used in applying the techniques with minority groups. Also, since these implications were drawn on the basis of only two studies the implications are somewhat tenuous.

While the use of media is a useful strategy to develop cognitive gains, the same cannot be stated for positive attitudinal changes. Because disadvantaged students can find success in learning from media strategies, their attitudes toward school and learning are sometimes improved. The influence of media strategies on their attitudes toward others, however, is not so positive. Positive attitude changes toward others are reported using media with elementary children but the results are more mixed at the junior high level. Studies reporting an attitude dimension saw change in majority group students toward minority groups but no change in the minority groups toward white students nor toward themselves. At high school level, the use of media actually produced either more negative feelings on the part of whites toward blacks, or no changes, or both positive and negative changes in a very small proportion of total changes. In view of this generalization it seems that the use of multimedia strategies may be a positive influence on young children whose attitudes are more easily changed. But as the students get older the changes are more difficult to make via media, in fact, if attitudes change there is a good chance that this change will be a negative change.

While no studies touched directly on the idea of attitude formation through the use of textbooks, it is possible to make some generalizations based on textbook analysis research regarding minority groups and the projects involving the use of tradebooks. Disadvantaged students will not be affected by material that does not have relevance to their life. Textbooks that portray only middle-class whites in stereotyped settings will have little appeal for minority students. Minority group individuals portrayed in illustrations and narrative should be those with whom the student can identify. Lastly, to lay a base for attitude formation, textbooks should picture all people as they really are in settings that are specific and not generalized. Texts should take other than neutral positions on controversial issues that concern minority groups. In short, social studies textbooks should "tell it like it is."

Although the stereotypes of minority group characters used in tradebooks are often complimentary, they remain stereotypes. Tradebooks have portrayed minority group characters in realistic settings more faithfully than textbooks. Fiction is more current in its treatment of minorities than are textbooks. Tradebooks present more intergroup cooperation and equality than do textbooks. Simply by including minority group characters in illustrations and their names in the narrative of the story, positive attitude changes occur in elementary age youngsters. Further, this often happens just by reading--the stories need not be discussed unless an objective is cognitive gain.

The research is not so definite at the high school level. The one project that used "high interest" literature as a media base made one believe that tradebook literature of similar content would function better than textbooks as contributors to student attitude change.

A factor of school organization that seems to affect elementary pupils' attitudes toward others is having some contact with those of other races. As revealed by Roth and Brzeinski, this contact would be either in integrated classrooms or in having pupils paired for certain in-school and out-of-school, field-type experiences. Students working in heterogeneously grouped classrooms seem to have better self-concepts than students placed in homogeneously grouped classes. Teachers believe that small classrooms are a factor in producing students with better attitudes and greater interest in learning. The available research supports the first statement but the second is questionable until tested. The studies that report special programs designed to influence attitudes toward others report mixed findings. The programs that bring Negroes and white together for special programs seem to produce more negative feelings toward Negroes on the part of the whites and no change in the way Negroes viewed whites. These were junior and senior high students--those whose attitudes are more difficult to influence than elementary students. It is hypothesized that the cause of these negative changes lies more in the content of the programs than in school organization factors.

Summary and Recommendations. It is impossible to rank strategies according to their usefulness in developing understandings and attitudes in the disadvantaged student. At this point it would seem that the more information gains occur when inductive, multi-activity strategies, and multimedia are used. More positive attitudinal gains seem to occur when activities are combined with reading media that feature characters representing minority groups. While audiovisual media is helpful in increasing information for the disadvantaged, it may have negative effects on the attitudes of youngsters. The teacher, therefore, must be careful in the selection of the content of media considering the maturity level of the student and his ability to handle conflict situations.

Simulation strategies are useful in increasing cognitive gains and in bringing about positive attitudes toward learning and school. Even though the past few years have seen a great increase in the number of appropriate games there are still too few to do much more than supplement the school's social science program. Role-playing and case study strategies are also useful techniques for influencing majority group attitudes but may have detrimental results on minority students unless the content of the cases and role-playing situations is selected to avoid conflict situations.

Reliance on textbooks as the prime vehicle for transmitting social studies content is suspect. It seems that tradebooks can convey as much information and cause longer retention in a much less painful manner than can textbooks. Further, tradebooks can positively influence student attitudes toward others and cause more information gain than textbooks if the teacher will discuss the readings the the students.

With one exception, factors of school organization seem to have little effect on either information acquisition or attitude change in students. This exception is the grouping pattern of the school. Disadvantaged students should be randomly grouped in classrooms and not grouped together. Homogeneously grouping students results in less information gain by the disadvantaged, lowering the student's self-concept and eliminates opportunities for youngsters of different races and ethnic backgrounds to know each other by working together toward common goals.

Cognitive Summarized. Both inductive and deductive teaching strategies result in knowledge gains for students at elementary and secondary levels. However, deductive strategies need to be supplemented by audiovisual media and by interaction for best results. Multiactivity approaches seem particularly suitable for the disadvantaged perhaps because of the students' lack of verbal facility in the language of the school. Through activity-work he can express himself in an other-than-verbal manner.

Simulation strategies--gaming,role-playing, case-study work--require activity and involvement. They produce knowledge gains. So, when the content of the curriculum and the difficulty of the material allow, they should be used with the disadvantaged.

Audiovisual media when combined with activities such as field trips and interaction techniques produces cognitive gains. However, audiovisuals must be studied to bring about these gains--watching the film is not enough.

The use of tradebooks can bring about knowledge gain if the reading is followed by discussion or activity work. Textbooks are not considered to be any more effective than are tradebooks in producing cognitive gains. Further, when tradebooks are used the students read more and enjoy their reading more than when using textbooks.

Administrative arrangements seem to have little effect on the knowledge acquisition of students. However, small classes and two and three-hour blocks of time make it possible to implement the more successful teaching strategies.

Affective Summarized. Inductive teaching strategies seem to have more influence on developing positive attitudes toward school and learning than they do in influencing attitudes toward others. However, at the secondary school level, the research points to positive results in attitude change through the use of inductive strategies.

When using interaction and audiovisual strategies to influence attitude change, teachers must use care in selecting materials. Threatening or confrontation materials can cause students to react negatively to those groups represented in the media. On the other hand, when students engage in activity work that focuses on goals common to all, positive attitudes toward others, feelings of group cohesion, and more positive attitudes toward school and learning tend to result.

Role-playing and case study methods introduce involvement that seems to positively influence students' feelings toward others. Tolerance is acquired through this type of school work.

Textbooks seem to have little effect on student attitudes. It is thought that in order to have positive effects on student attitudes, texts must be relevant to the students' life and must portray the world in a realistic manner. Otherwise, the student may tune out the test. Tradebooks are another matter. Reading tradebooks that contain narrative and illustrations of people from minority groups can have positive influences on students' attitudes toward other races and ethnic groups.

In order for students to develop better attitudes toward those different from themselves, some personal contact with youngsters of different abilities and racial and ethnic groups is needed. Therefore, it is thought that integrated classes populated with children of different abilities would have a greater chance of having a positive influence than the homogeneously grouped classrooms. Self-concepts of disadvantaged students also may have a better chance to remain intact or to improve. Greater interest in learning is observed in small classes perhaps because the smaller number of students allow teachers to carry on more activity-oriented programs.

This summary implies the following recommendations for types of learning in relation to strategies and media for teaching social studies to and about the disadvantaged:

1) If the prime objective is acquisition of knowledge, then multiactivity and multimedia strategies should be used with inductive strategies.

2) Deductive strategies are effective in knowledge acquisition if the strategy is heavily supplemented with other media or if the materials and activities are hightly structured and sequential in nature.

3) Tradebook media featuring minorities plus multiactivity and interaction strategies will produce positive attitude gains.

4) Conflict type content of reading and media should be avoided.

5) If the student is to develop positive self-concepts he should be placed in heterogeneous multiethnic classrooms.

Implications and Recommendations for Use of Teaching Strategies and Media

Even though rigorous experimental design and statistical treatment were not always applied to the projects reporting data on teaching the disadvantaged or teaching about the disadvantaged there are data that form a base for the implications and recommendations that follow.

Strategies and Media for Teaching the Disadvantaged. The key idea in teaching the disadvantaged seems to be active involvement of the student. This involvement is brought about by using activities and media that are relevant to his life and his aspirations. As shown by the data, cognitive and affective learning can take place by utilizing many strategies and most media. If the strategy is inductive, multiactivity, or interaction the activity dimension may be almost built-in but if the strategy is deductive, a multimedia, or a reading strategy, interaction must play a part if learning is to take place.

Teachers believe students learn more and retain more of what is learned than when taught using inductive strategies. Since the trend in social studies instruction is toward inductive teaching there are few reports of deductive strategies upon which to base decisions. Those that were reported indicated that students can learn using this strategy; however, this strategy needs to be supplemented by readings, films, and other audiovisuals or the materials and activities need to be structured to accomplish specific objectives.

While it is known that deductive strategies are effective for achieving cognitive gains with the disadvantaged, at some point in the student's school life he should have opportunities to deal with information and/or situations that require something more than patterned responses to structured presentations and structured activities. They should also be exposed to open-ended approaches to learning since these are the substance of life situations which must be faced and dealt with satisfactorily if the youngster is to survive in a modern society.

Multiactivity and interaction then not only stand alone as strategies but can supplement other strategies with the disadvantaged. The use of many activities satisfies the criterion of involvement in learning but there is another part to involvement and that has to do with the idea of purpose. Most teachers and administrators have observed activity programs in social studies in which children studying China thought it was a great learning device to dress children in poster paper conical hats and eat a mother-prepared lunch of chop suey, of all things. Is this the type of activity that increased understanding for the disadvantaged child? He could care less except for the fact that it may have been fun for a change. The activities that are structured for this student must have a purpose that is relevant to his life and his time. Both he and the teacher must know the outcomes toward which they are working. Otherwise, multiactivity and interaction strategies lack value.

While simulation strategies for the most part have not been tested against more conventional methods they seem to show promise. Gaming is enjoyable, most are not difficult to play, in fact, reading ability or intelligence has little connection with ability to succeed in games. Students also like role-playing and case-study techniques. Information gains result from these strategies but caution is urged if an objective is attitude change with disadvantaged students.

Audiovisual media contribute greatly to information gain when these media are used in conjunction with discussion and supplemented by readings. Caution is again urged when utilizing audiovisual media in attempts to improve attitudes toward others. Generally, positive results occur with elementary children but when older students, whose attitudes are more difficult to change, are exposed to conflict situations negative results may be realized.

Other factors that seem to positively affect learning of disadvantaged students are: heterogeneously grouped classes, selected teachers, and small class size to facilitate individual work.

From this summary, the following recommendations are presented:

1) The pattern of teaching strategies used with the disadvantaged should feature active involvement of students.

2) Inductive strategies are favored but students do profit from deductive teaching-learning especially if multiactivity and interaction dimensions are included.

3) Because of the students' difficulty with the language of the school audiovisual media should be used. When audiovisuals are included they need to be supplemented by readings and discussion.

4) When the content and the difficulty level of games is appropriate, gaming techniques should be used.

5) Classes should be small to allow for individualized teaching and activity work. The students should not be homogeneously grouped but placed in classes with students of various ethnic backgrounds and ability levels.

Strategies and Media for Teaching Others About the Disadvantaged. It is unusual that of the projects reporting data on teaching about the disadvantaged almost half used some type of audiovisual media. Each project that reported a knowledge dimension reported cognitive gains. Each study also reported that the students did more than passively watch the television or film--discussions, reading, or some type of activity followed. Attitude changes were both positive and negative--elementary pupils attitudes toward others changed positively and secondary students changed negatively or no change was noted. The studies that reported both positive attitude and information gains involved elements of multimedia, interaction, and multiactivity strategies.

The second major area of experimentation was with reading media. Comparisons of multiethnic readers versus regular editions and tradebooks and discussions versus textbooks, resulted in knowledge gain from reading the books containing stories or illustrations of minority group characters. In each instance, positive attitude changes towards minorities were reported.

Special programs involving collections of materials designed to supplement the regular school programs produced little cognitive or attitude gain on the part of the disadvantaged students. When high school students were brought together in a summer program to explore patterns of prejudice more negative views of others were developed. This result may have occurred because the students were placed in an atmosphere threatening to themselves without having sufficient preparation for dealing with conflict situations.

From this summary, the following recommendations are presented:

1) Programs designed to teach about minority groups should draw heavily from audiovisual media if knowledge gains are the objective of the programs. The audiovisuals should be followed by discussions and activities.

2) When tradebook content is suitable to the curriculum and students, tradebooks should be used in place of textbooks. When tradebooks or textbooks are used they should be supplemented by discussions, activities, and audiovisuals.

3) When textbooks are selected they should feature minority group characters in both illustrations and in the narrative.

4) Schools should be extremely cautious when exposing students to conflict-type media. Often students are not prepared to handle this kind of media content and more harm than good may happen to these students' feelings toward others.

5) Classrooms should be organized so that youngsters have opportunities for contact with students of different abilities and different racial and ethnic backgrounds.

Chapter Four

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Teacher Training

Curriculum Development by Teachers

Instructional Planning by Teachers

Basic Characteristics of Teachers

Summary

Most efforts to investigate or improve school practices give some special attention to teachers. For research in education has long since verified the common-sense observation that the teacher's role is a centrally influential one in school instruction. Thus the Study research team understandably expected to find a considerable amount and range of data on professional characteristics, activities, and development of teachers. In examining data reports, the Study staff sought evidence relating to teachers as follows:

DATA SOUGHT ON TEACHERS

basic characteristics

academic background

attitudes

other professional characteristics

project training of teachers

other in-service training

planning of curriculum

production of instructional material

Altogether some nineteen of about seventy data reports selected for this Study included enough data on teachers to provide a basis for interpretation. But the limited extent and range of these data plus the lack of sufficient studies regarding most aspects of teachers proved generally disappointing to these researchers. Several studies deal with each of: teacher training for particular projects, curriculum development by teachers, and instructional planning by teachers. A few studies include data on somewhat diverse additional characteristics or activities of teachers. This section summarizes the chief reported features of teachers and those types of their professional activities.

Occasionally data reports specify, though more often they only imply or simply ignore, deterrents to gathering data concerning teachers. Probable reasons may be suspected. With inevitably limited resources, project personnel are more apt to concentrate on finding out what they can about students than about teachers. It is a given that students are more amenable, partly perhaps because they are less in a position to refuse to cooperate, in supplying data. Further, most innovative projects involve a commitment to reporting success--as distinguished from an analytical attempt to find out what is, or what happens if. Not only is the thrust of such a project toward a product (material, or student's learning, or both), but probing analytically into teachers' characteristics or activities might be presumed to interfere with accomplishing the project's other goals. Even those projects that were otherwise heavily statistical usually reported little if any data on teachers. The fact that some do suggest that others also might. Such data could be quite valuable to those engaged in teacher training and other work with teachers.

Teacher Training. One of the major prospects facing those who undertake seriously the improvement of instruction for or about the disadvantaged is the potential, and usually apparent, need to provide some type of teacher training. A limited number of research and project reports from the past decade provide data and conclusions that offer some suggestive implications for others. Though the ten reports dealt with here are necessarily limited in the number of teachers involved, those reports do include some variety of teachers, approaches and forms of teacher training, and in the elements of curriculum, instruction, and media for which teachers were being trained.

The most often used means for preparing teachers to engage in experimental or innovative teaching are variously labelled "workshop" or "in-service" sessions or programs. The considerable range of variations in numbers and timing of sessions, length of sessions, and number of weeks or months during which they operated makes it difficult to compare them and to generalize regarding such training programs. The most extensive in-service programs are reported by Edgar (1966), Gornick (1967), and perhaps Dow (1969) though the extent and nature of teacher training in the latter programs are not described. Edgar's project involved twelve teachers (apparently including four control-group teachers) who met for each of fifteen weeks over a period before, during, and after the five-to-six week experimental period. Gornick's "group" of two experimental teachers met weekly for six months of the practically full school year of experimentation. Training focused most tangibly on the techniques for instructional utilization of experimental materials. Next most evident emphasis was on the use of "inquiry" or some form of more open-ended teaching. In all three of these extensive training programs there was also distinctive attention to the nature of, and instructional techniques for developing comprehension of, the experimental subject-matter content. The content varied from emphasis on the role of blacks in the Civil War period (for eighth grade U.S. history--Edgar), to anthropologically-oriented content (for middle grades--4 through 6--Dow), to basic concepts and generalizations ranging across the social sciences (also for middle grades 4 and 6--Gornick).

In the three projects involving extensive in-service training, there is considerably less evaluation of teacher training than of students' learning. Indeed, the Gornick study reports no evaluation of the training program for teachers. The Dow program involved questionnaires and interviews with the experimental teachers, but there was no specific indication that the teachers reacted to the teacher-training aspects of the program. The project staff, however, concluded that teacher preparation was an essential element of the program as teachers required both grounding in the experimental content and in techniques involving students more and involving teachers in less didactic, verbalistic roles. Edgar's study also reported evaluation of teacher preparation by the project staff and no such evaluation report directly from the participating teachers. Apparently at least some of their reactions were included, however, in the staff's judgment that even more than the fifteen workshop sessions are needed for adequate teacher preparation, and that such participation should provide teachers financial compensation or academic credit or both. It was considered highly important that teachers "work through ideas" related to the concepts in the instructional content and that they receive training to participate as cooperating researchers in the project.

A somewhat contrary reaction is reported by Larkins (1968) who compared performance of first-grade children in one rural and one urban, and two suburban school systems in Utah plus one Indiana school system. In the latter location teachers had received considerable in-service training in the experimental economics-oriented materials (Senesh). Pupils of the reportedly non-trained teachers, however, performed comparably to those of the trained teachers. Relatibility of this study to the disadvantaged is somewhat difficult as pupils were identified, for the research, by mental ability but not by ethnic or socioeconomic group. In any case, low ability pupils learned some of the material, though not so much as higher ability pupils. And some doubt is thrown on the necessity of project teacher training insofar as effect on cognitive achievement of pupils is concerned.

Short-term "workshops" or simply meetings for the purposes of preparing teachers to participate in their projects are reported by Dooley (two sessions), Georgeoff (four), Smith (six), and Whitla (three). Project Staff worked directly with elementary teachers in these projects except that reported by Whitla which involved training films used in various parts of the country. Only Dooley's two sessions were confined to the pretreatment period. Smith met with her six experimental teachers (one from each grade in an elementary school) before the treatment for overviews of the experimental curriculum, demonstration lessons, and discussions. She was also available for consultation during the experimental period and held a followup conference with each of the cooperating teachers. Dooley thought that the status of participating in a project contributed to his cooperating black elementary teachers achieving with their fourth-grade students greater learning of economic concepts than expected. Smith, however, found the participating black elementary teachers possibly resentful of being "volunteered" (by their principal). They used, observed and tabulated twenty to seventy percent of the instructional "processes" (activities) she suggested for the two weeks of instruction. There was no reported evaluation of learning by students in the classes of Smith's teachers. Georgeoff reports conducting four workshops for teachers over a three-month period; teacher training appears to have been informal and incidental to the curriculum development reported in a preceding analysis.

The Education Development Center's program reported by Whitla involved a large, uncounted number of teachers across the country in up to three training films, used closed circuit or broadcast by ETV. Two-fifths of a special sample of two hundred teachers whose classes witnessed the five experimental lessons completed questionnaires. These 82 teachers attended from none (11%) to all three (75%) of the three training sessions, three-fifths of the teachers on a voluntary basis. One-third viewed the films with no other teachers present. Each "training" session involved a non-directive "training" film that emphasized techniques employed by others teachers using the five films on current racial conflict, intended for secondary school classes (via ETV).

Half of the training-session teachers considered such sessions valuable. Two-thirds of the teachers who participated in group training meetings reported that the training films were followed by discussion; it was not considered worthwhile by most of the teachers. Two-fifths considered the training films valuable as they were, and another two-fifths regarded them as useful but needful of more of the student-film content. Many of the teachers would have preferred more structured training sessions. A teachers' manual (describing the student films and providing suggestions for classroom discussion and projects) was regarded as satisfactory or good by 70% of the teachers responding, with an additional 20% considering it excellent. There were regional differences among the teachers, those in the Midwest and Far West somewhat more favorable than eastern teachers toward the teacher training materials and the instructional program. No southern teachers were included as the project staff did not find ETV stations in the South broadcasting the series at this fime.

The Law in American Society project (Ratcliffe) has conducted four annual summer institutes for different groups of experienced teachers in Chicago. While the first two summer programs stressed curriculum development, the institute programs for 1968 and 1969 emphasized inquiry training. Of 117 teachers in the 1968 institute, 25 were chosen for classroom observation by the project staff. Fifteen teachers received training in instructional use of inquiry with project materials; 10 received workshop training but not in inquiry approaches; and another ten, matched with the inquiry group, used the project materials but did not receive training. Observers visited the classrooms of these teachers both before and after the institute. Using a modified form of Flanders' Interaction Analysis observers concluded that the inquiry-trained group became the most effective teachers and changed more in the direction of inquiry teaching. Substantiating data are not reported.

Greene (1966) also reported statistically significant gains that are quite limited in actual test-score differences favoring summer-trained teachers of both first- and fourth-grade pupils. Pupil gains at the end of a twenty-day unit in anthropology slightly favored the experimental teachers who had had two summer institute courses in anthropology. Both experimental and control teachers were furnished background material on the subject matter of the unit. While data were not reported separately on disadvantaged pupils so identified individually, pupils of black teachers in then (1965) segregated schools ranked lower than others. The researcher attributed that finding more to socio-economic status than to race because segregated Negro schools were located in low-income areas. Beyond the in-service workshop and experienced teacher institutes, only one wholly pre-service of teacher training has been reported (Rousch, 1969). He used various ones and combinations of audio and video tape and other feedback in training pre-service teacher corps teachers at the University of Houston. With the Flanders Verbal Interaction Analysis System he found no differences in the trainees' response to various types of feedback or no feedback.

Despite limitations of diversity in both the nature of the teacher-training programs and in the extent and nature of evaluation of teacher training in these projects, some implications can be suggested to those working with teachers in relation to social studies and the disadvantaged. Clearly most project personnel who have engaged in and evaluated teacher training for their projects conclude that it is essential. Their "motion" is generally "seconded" by teachers participating in the projects. However, the effects on students' learning in classes of trained versus non-trained teachers have not been sufficiently compared. Lack of clearly favorable evidence implies the need to gather more data. But the judgment of both the leaders and teacher-participants in such training programs may well be considered as valuable guidance. School systems that attempt seriously to improve social studies for or about the disadvantaged will do well to incorporate specific and pertinent teacher training into their improvement program. The most effective and efficient particular forms and types of training, or even the extent of such training, can scarcely be reliably predicted. The most evident suggestions growing out of the projects analyzed here are that there should be some teacher training and that it should be planned and operated as an important element of the program. Hopefully, more pre-service and in-service programs will recurrently involve the gathering, analysis, and reporting of data. Such reports can furnish others, as well as personnel for each project, further guidance regarding specifics of teacher training.

Curriculum Development by Teachers. Innovative projects involving social studies and the disadvantaged sometimes engage teachers in major planning of a new or revised curriculum. A half dozen of the projects reported in this chapter so involved teachers. The extent and types of teacher participation varied among these projects. These elements of teacher activity, as they engaged in project curriculum development, suggest useful implications for developmental projects and school programs elsewhere. This section summarizes these elements, including the amount and length of time involved, the resources furnished participating teachers, the kinds of curricula that the teachers produced, and some other reported characteristics of teacher development of curriculum.

Three of the projects involved teachers in curriculum planning for a considerable period of time. The Law in American Society curriculum development was most extensive (Ratcliffe, 1969). It engaged a total of more than 200 teachers in summer workshops of several weeks each over a period of three summers. While different teachers attended each summer, each workshop prepared initially, revised, refined, or extended drafts of curriculum materials. These included seven booklets for students in various secondary social studies courses, and a teacher's handbook for each course. The handbook stressed learning activities, particularly those requiring active student involvement and inquiry learning. Reported evaluation of teacher participation concentrated on followup of the 1968 Institute's training of teachers in inquiry. Commerical publication of the teacher-produced materials testifies to tangible success of this effort.

The projects reported by Edgar (1966) and Muller (1969) engaged teachers somewhat less extentsively in the total time for curriculum development than did Ratcliffe's project. Edgar involved twelve teachers for most of a school year in fifteen sessions before, during and after the instruction. The Muller project continued over a two-year period with eighteen teachers meeting for fifteen half-days during the first year. They met with representatives of the community, the state department of education, students, and other groups. They also visited schools identified as having innovative programs and examined books on recent trends in social studies. Occasionally during the following school year principal-designated teachers were released to develop the experimental curriculum for the full-year in each grades five, eight, and eleven. Reported data in both the Edgar and Muller studies concern students' achievement. Edgar does, however, comment specifically and favorably on development of the curriculum by teachers with consultant help and leadership.

More limited teacher involvement in curriculum development occurred in three additional projects. Teachers and supervisors in a Milwaukee, Wisconsin, project planned a new seventh-grade course in world history, culture, and institutions (Ashbaugh, 1966-1967); but the nature of and procedures in their curriculum planning are not reported. Twenty-six Gary, Indiana, teachers met four times over a three-month period to revise proposed content, the selection of instructional materials, and emphases for fourth-grade instruction in Negro history during part of a school year (Georgeoff, 1967). A varying approach in Kansas City, Missouri, (Wheeler, 1968) provided for teachers of the fifth through tenth grades in summer school a daily planning period. The summer school term ran six weeks at the elementary level and eight in secondary schools. Many of the teachers involved valued highly the planning period, but some of them considered inadequate the shortened instructional period as it did not provide enought time to finish their (now more fully?) planned lessons.

Implications for school practice are limited by the small number of and considerable diversity of projects reporting curriculum development by teachers. It is evident that project leaders plus participating teachers do generally favor this type of professional activity as an aid to project success. Generally greater amounts of teacher time devoted to it yields a greater amount of curriculum development. The most desirable alternatives seem to occur during summers or, alternatively, through provision for released time during the school year. Curriculum development also seems to profit from providing the teachers involved with adequate resources, especially pertinent materials and consultants and leaders.

Instructional Planning by Teachers. Seven of the projects surveyed in this Study reported on instructional planning by teachers. The seven are so diverse as to defy direct comparisons or identification of emphases. This analysis will, then, merely illustrate some of the range of instructional planning practices reported. In general, the projects reported here vary from those described under curriculum development by teachers in the former's (1) providing less extensive time for teacher planning, (2) typical teacher planning of lessons rather than of courses or other long periods of instruction, and (3) teacher planning only during the period of experimental instruction rather than before it.

The EDC project (Dow, 1969) included but did not report descriptively such instructional planning by teachers as was involved. Reference is made to teachers' difficulty in handling the new (anthropological) content and in developing more open-ended instructional approaches. A majority of the teachers (grades four through six) also reported relating the experimental content to such subjects as language arts, science, and art. But the procedures the teachers used in developing these relationships are not indicated.

Edgar's study (1966) involved instructional planning as a a part of the curriculum planning that also preceeded and followed the period of instruction. The nature of teachers' specific planning activities is not indicated, but the researchers regarded the allocated time (once a week for about a third of the school year) as distinctly insufficient. The Hayes report (1969) indicates planning by a unique committee consisting equally of (ten each) teachers and students. These volunteer members met only four times to develop plans for using in their various schools the resources of an Afro-American Instructional Curriculum Laboratory. Smith (1967) reported not only pre-experimental training of a group of six participating teachers, but also being available for consultation with the teachers during the two weeks of experimental instruction. They made little use of this service and also refrained from writing the criticisms (she had requested) of her lesson plans for them. Planning during the period of instruction is reflected in Stoakes' report (1964) of an increase in teacher's requests for instructional materials that he provided. And Wheeler's previously mentioned study (1968) reported teachers' judgment that they really met more effectively the needs of students by preparing (during 90-minute planning periods) an instructional unit particularly for them.

Although the small number of projects reporting diverse instructional planning practices does deter generalizing, some comments are appropriate. Allocated time for teachers to plan instruction sometimes, but not consistently, results in greater learning of desired and measured types. Such an allocation of time is even more favorably appraised in the subjective responses of teachers and project leaders. On the assumption that higher teacher morale is in itself desirable, then provision will be made for such extra time when varying emphases or approaches in content or instructional procedures are to be implemented.

Basic Characteristics of Teachers. Those seeking guidance to identification of the "best" teachers of social studies for or about the disadvantaged may expect to be disappointed in the limited data that research and development projects have reported. For these projects, revealing valuable data on some other aspects, have generally not revealed any more than bits and pieces of information on basic characteristics of the teachers who worked with them. Nevertheless, a brief description can call attention here to such information as eight studies have reported. The range of teacher characteristics considered here includes some beyond teacher skills and knowledge that pertain directly to curriculum or instruction.

Some attitudes of teachers are reported in the studies by Dooley (1968), Georgeoff (1967), and Smith (1967). Dooley inferred that the greater gains he found among Negro students with Negro teachers derived at least partly from pride these teachers felt over being included in the experimentation. Georgeoff thought that Negro teachers who had both white and Negro students in their classes were reluctant to teach forcefully the experimental Negro history material for fear of arousing hostility among their white students; white teachers, also interviewed by the researcher, revealed no special hesitancy in this regard. Smith found by interview with the only teachers involved in her study, six Negroes, variously hesitant, evasive, apathetic, and unknowledgeable, but also desirous of specific aids and grateful for the help they received. In all three of these studies, the researchers report their impressions of, rather than more tangible data concerning the teachers.

It was demonstrated by Ratcliffe (1969) that teachers can be moved toward a fuller inquiry orientation as a result of intensive, pre-experimental inquiry training. Rousch (1969) found that variations among a small number of pre-service Teacher Corps interns in sex, age, experience, educational background, geographical origin, and race made no identifiable difference in the lack of effect of video and audio tape feedback in their instructional behavior, including elements of accepting and interacting with their students.

Perhaps understandably, but nonetheless regrettably, few projects have reported on the effects of teacher knowledge of the experimental subject matter in relation to performance of students. Only an occasional one of the reported teacher-training projects did include this factor, as has already been described here. Green's study (1966) showed a little difference favoring elementary teachers trained in anthropology, but his report did not separately identify the disadvantaged pupils from others. Potterfield (1966) reported that teacher background in the subject matter made little difference in performance of pupils studying an anthropology unit in the middle grades; but only one trained and one untrained teacher taught the five experimental classes. The pupils of low status scored about as high as those of high socio-economic class on the achievement test.

Imperatore (1969) analyzed teachers' background in geography in relation to performance of kindergartners on an introductory unit concerning the earth. The extent of teachers' background failed to make a statistically significant difference of pupils' performance. However, teachers who had had more courses in geography tended more to regard the twenty-seven-lesson unit as appropriate for instruction; and these two factors together related quite closely to the degree of pupil achievement. More experienced teachers were also distinctly more effective. Material furnished all of the experimental teachers included five essays dealing with geographic content for teachers. The researcher attributed the limited influence of teachers' geographic background to the "low-powered" nature of the geographic subject matter. In this study there was no significant difference in the performance of white and Negro pupils. However, the combined factors of race and socio-economic status showed disadvantaged pupils scoring lower than others.

Among the projects surveyed in this Study, only the EDC

ETV program reported by Whitla deals with a broad range of teacher characteristics. Most of those characteristics involve teachers' reactions to the experimental materials and the three training films that concerned instructional use of the material. Whitla reported somewhat varying reactions of men and women teachers and of teachers of racially integrated and non-integrated classes. Variations were also reported among men and women regarding the instructional material itself. Interested readers should examine Whitla's report which devotes several pages to reporting of teachers' reactions.

Summary. Several features of professional development involved in reported research and development projects on social studies and the disadvantaged deserve special emphasis. Perhaps an outstanding finding of this Study is the limited attention given to aspects of professional development in such projects. While some of the other projects may have dealt with, and even gathered data on, professional development, the reports of their projects did not so indicate. Clearly, however, the need for progress in teacher selection, training, and curriculum development demands that more effort be made to secure and report data concerning teachers. These data should indicate information on the basic characteristics of teachers if they are to shed light on what kinds of persons are most effective in teaching socials studies for or about the disadvantaged.

The twenty-seven percent of the projects surveyed that did deal with professional development tell a different story. Participating teachers and the project leaders generally endorse teacher training and teacher development of curriculum on or for disadvantaged. The enthusiasm of those who have tried it, albeit often lacking the support of "hard data," contrasts sharply with apparent ignoring of professional characteristics and development in the other projects. And future projects will, hopefully, increase and improve the gathering of pertinent data.

Particular note may be made of the lack of reports on pre-service training of social studies teachers for or about the disadvantaged. As practically all pre-service training occurs in colleges and universities, it is those institutions that apparently need their attention called to the lack of research and development data in this area. Such a lack is especially surprising in view of the typically greater resources available in colleges for research and development. Indeed, a sizeable number of leading personnel in the projects reported in this Study were college people. Hopefully they can be persuaded to research their own training programs as well as those in elementary and secondary schools. Pressures from those latter levels may well persuade the college people to do so.

Chapter Five

SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DISADVANTAGED

Sociological Factors

Psychological Factors

Ethnic Groups

Implications for Social Studies

For purposes of this review, "disadvantaged" follows the statutory definition of poverty. A disadvantaged learner is a student who comes from a deprived economic background. Over the years, an extensive literature has developed that purports to describe the sociological and psychological characteristics of the disadvantaged. Most of this literature is of the descriptive survey type, and there is little empirical testing of the psychological and sociological constructs by actual intervention studies. Much effort has been expended in the direction of culture-fair or culture-free testing that might have been more wisely spent on determining the most effective procedures for teaching the disadvantaged, such as the organization of materials and the methodologies of instruction. The result of social-psychological research with the disadvantaged, therefore, hardly does more than give a sophisticated interpretation of the conventional stereotypes of the poor. In fact, much of the descriptive literature on the disadvantaged may be more harmful than helpful, since under the guise of scientific information the teacher is provided with ammunition to justify the failure of the disadvantaged child in school rather than criteria to measure the failure of the teacher and the school to teach the disadvantaged child.

This survey does not purport to be a comprehensive survey of the sociological and psychological literature on the disadvantaged; some excellent summaries of various types are listed on the bibliography. This survey, rather, is designed to indicate the broad scope of the field and to stress those studies that appear to have implications for schooling, particularly in the social studies.

Sociological Factors

Who Are the Disadvantaged? Disadvantaged children are poor children. In 1965, there were 32.6 million poor persons in the United States, constituting 17.1 percent of the population. There were 14.3 million poor children under 18, which accounted for 20.5 percent of all children. There were 8.7 million poor white children, which accounted for 14.5 percent of all white children. There were fewer nonwhite children--5.6 million--but the incidence of poverty was over 3 times greater than among whites--55.6 percent nonwhite. Poverty in the United States is primarily Negro poverty. (Table No. 482, Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1968).

In 1965, there were 8.9 million poor households, excluding 1- and 2-person households with head 65 years and older. Nonfarm poor households numbered 7.9 million compared to 0.9 million poor farm households. The incidence of poverty, however, was the same--15 percent. However, there was a substantial ethnic difference in the incidence of poverty.

Seventy-six percent of the nonwhite farm households were poor compared to 24 percent white. Thirty-seven percent of nonfarm households were poor compared to 12 percent of the white households. (Table No. 483, Statistical Abstract, 1968).

Of the over 32 million poor persons in 1965, 14 million were in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas of over 250,000; 3 million in other SMSA's; and 15 million outside of SMSA's. The percent of poor children under 18 was 15.9 for SMSA's of 250,000 population or more; 17.9 in other SMSA's, and 26.9 outside of SMSA's. (Table No. 484, Statistical Abstract, 1968).

From the foregoing it is clear that the number of white poor children exceed the number of nonwhite poor children, but that the incidence of poverty is substantially higher among nonwhite poor children. The number of urban poor children exceeds the number of rural poor children, but the incidence rate of poverty is higher among the nonurban poor than among the urban poor.

In metropolitan areas, 7.9 percent of white were poor families compared to 28.1 percent nonwhite. By sex of head of family, 7.4 percent headed by males were poor compared to 32.7 headed by females. The incidence rate of poor households in nonwhite, nonfarm households headed by a female is 56 percent compared to 29 percent for male heads. These figures indicate the lower earning power of females, and the greater probability of a home with father absence being a poor home. Low income, rather than father absence per se, may be the most significant factor. The percentage of poor families is related to the size of family. While 7.7 percent of 4-person families are poor families, 13 percent of 6-person and 24 percent of 7-person families are poor. (Table No. 485, Statistical Abstract, 1968).

Money income is related to education and race; nonwhite families make less than white families, irrespective of the amount of education. In 1965, 37 percent of white families with less than 8 years of schooling had incomes of less than $3,000 compared to 53 percent of nonwhite families. Increased educational opportunity for the nonwhite high school graduate does not bring rewards comparable to the white high school graduate. Only 7.6 percent of whites with 4 years of high school education had incomes of less than $3,000 compared to 20 percent for nonwhites. (Table No. 447, Statistical Abstract, 1968). Color of skin and not merely education is thus a substantial factor in obtaining better paying jobs.

There are both regional and racial differences in money income.

In the South, the number of white families with incomes of less than $3,000 is 20.5 percent compared with 11.9 percent in the North and West. The difference, however, is even more marked for Negroes; 50.2 percent of Negro families in the South have incomes of less than $3,000 compared to 22.2 percent in the North and West (Table No 476, Statistical Abstract, 1968). On the basis of income, the rural Southern Negro is the most disadvantaged ethnic group in the United States. Sixty percent of rural Negro children are poor compared to 24 percent of rural white children. However, poor rural white children number 3.8 million compared to 1.2 million Negro, based on the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare 1963 "economy budget." (Havighurst, 1967).

According to Havighurst, the 12.5 million poor children based on the 1963 "economy budget" had the following characteristics:

Characteristic	Percent of Sample	Percent of All Poor Children	Millions
Urban-Rural			
Urban	20	60	7.5
Rural	28	40	5.0
Color-Rurality			
White	24	31	3.8
Negro	60	9	1.2
Regional-Rurality			
South (62% of rural poor)	40	24	3.1
Northeast, North Central,West (38% of rural poor)	19	16	1.9
Other Ethnic, Mainly Rural, Groups (Previously included in "white" above)			
Spanish-Americans, Southwest	35	4.0	0.5
Indian Children			
On or Near Reservation	60	0.8	0.1
Not on or Near Reservation	80	0.3	0.04

Social Class and Schooling. One of the largest descriptive bodies of research concerning the disadvantaged learner shows the relationship of socio-economic class to schooling, both with respect to general school achievement, specific subject matter achievement, and intelligence as measured by conventional tests.

The evidence is now new. As early as 1908 Binet explicitly recognized the effect of cultural and social class differences upon the IQ, but was unable to resolve the difficulty (Davis, 1948). By 1927, Mead and Stoke had demonstrated significant relationships between the social and occupational level of parents and the IQ scores of their children. In 1938 Neff questioned the assumption that intelligence tests were in any way a measure of native ability, because of the confounding of presumed native ability with environmental variables. These studies were originally concerned primarily with the white population in the United States, prior to the current concern with the disadvantaged Negro and other minority groups. Social class, however, was nevertheless shown to apply to Negroes with respect to differential college performance (Canady, 1936; Jenkins and Randall, 1948) and to school achievement (Edmiston and McBain, 1945).

The phenomena of social class and intelligence has been widely observed in different countries of Europe (Kuiper, 1930; Holland and Germany; Sandels, 1942, Sweden; Forbes, 1945, Northern Ireland; Heuyer, Pieron, and Sauvy, 1954, France) and with different ethnic groups (Ginnsberg, 1951, Brazil; Kirahara, Japan). In 1951, Eells asserted that the relationship had been so clearly established, without any contrary evidence, that no further study was needed for the purpose of establishing the existence or nonexistence of social class differences and IQ. However, subsequent studies in the last twenty years have continued to emphasize this relationship, but have provided little additional insight for the development of specific intervention programs of either a preventive or remedial nature.

Social class and education in the United States, as well as in other countries, is simply another way of emphasizing the relationship of income and money to various life chances. It is common knowledge that social rewards are not evenly distributed in society. Notwithstanding the fact that the United States is an open rather than a closed class society, the life chances of children to enjoy leisure, freedom, security and the other good things of life are closely related to economic condition of their parents. The concept of social class and stratification is significant because it permits us to regard a social class as a group of persons with similar life chances. The poor get less of what there is to get, whether it is money or life itself.

Infant mortality in a 1936 study was 3 times greater in low compared to higher income families (Woodbury, 1936). While the differential has been narrowed, it has not been eliminated (Altenderer and Crowther, 1949). Infant mortality is undoubtedly related to the dysgenic conditions surrounding pregnancy in lower class mothers. Malnutrition (Stoch and Smythe, 1963), vitamin deficiency (Harrell, Woodward, and Gates, 1955), and inadequate prenatal care (Bronfenbreener, 1967) are reflected in a higher incidence of brain damage and infant malnutrition (Cravioto, 1966) and prematurity (Kushlick, 1966; Stott, 1966). The poverty rate for families of five and six children is three and a half times greater than for those with one or two children (Hill and Jaffe, 1966). The birthrate is higher among low income Negroes than among low income whites, (Mitra, 1966; Moynihan, 1966) and the generation span shorter (Bajema, 1966). Teenage pregnancy and delivery, frequency of pregnancy, close succession of pregnancy, and late pregnancies are social conditions related to low birth weight, prematurity, increased infant mortality, prolonged labor, toxemia, malformations and other deficiencies in offspring.

(Graves, Freeman, and Thompson, 1968). Differential life chances for the children of the poor begin from the moment of conception.

Children of the poor who grow up to be men and women have a higher incidence of sickness. Chronic disability is higher among families on relief, illness more frequent and prolonged, and medical care less frequent (National Health Survey, 1935-36). Psychiatric disorders are more widespread and more severe. Neuroses are characteristic of the rich while psychoses are more prevalent among the poor (Hollingshead and Redlich, 1953). There is a difference in treatment: lower class patients receive little more than custodial care (Robinson, Redlich, and Myers, 1954). It is not surprising, therefore, to find that lower class people do not live as long as upper class people. Negro longevity is six years less than white longevity in the United States.

Social class also affects the chance of getting a college education (Wolfe, 1954), dropping out of school (Shrieber, 1967), obtaining justice in the courts (Sutherland, 1949), developing a helpful personality (Gesell and Lord, 1927), becoming a juvenile delinquent (Bowers, 1939), and survival in the armed forces (Mayer and Hoult, 1955). It affects the total life style of a people and their self-perceptions. Fewer lower-class children are rated as good looking compared to upper class children. Performance of higher class children is overestimated by others and by themselves whereas lower class performance is underestimated (Harvey, 1953). Studies of social class differences indicate differences in every aspect of life from courting and child rearing practices (Davis and Havighurst, 1947; Hollingshead, 1949) to church membership and political party affiliation (Centers, 1949). Social class differences are hence cultural differences. Since education always takes place in the context of a particular culture, neither educational policy or practice can afford to ignore social stratification.

The relationship of education to the reduction of social class differences is contradictory. On the one hand, there are studies which tend to indicate that there is an increased representation of persons of lower class origin in the business and professional categories, and a corresponding reduction of the number of sons of business men (Warner and Abegglen, 1955). Mobility, however, is alleged to be primarily within rather than between manual and nonmanual occupations (Lipset and Bendix, 1952), with little change in ratio of actual to expected variations in the social origins of occupational groups (Rogoff, 1953).

A study in England classifying adult subjects by decade for the period 1890-1930 indicated no significant change in the proportion of the sample with the same status as their fathers and in the United States the occupations of sons are for the most part in the same economic class as the father (Davidson and Anderson, 1957). However, in the United States there has been an increase in the ratio of white collar to white collar employment (Mills, 1951). The increase in the number of higher prestige occupations has been accompanied by an increase in income level (Moulton, 1949). These changes are probably due primarily to economic, technological and governmental factors, such as minimum wage legislation and the progressive income tax, rather than to education. Sorokin (1957) emphasized the lack of interoccupational mobility, 30 years later the evidence of increased vertical mobility was still inconclusive (Chinoy, 1955). What is happening appears to be a general increase in the standard of living of the country as a whole, with a sharp increase in personal and family income. This change gives the appearance of increased social mobility, when there is little actual movement.

Social classes in the United States are not perfectly formed, but primarily represent a classificatory scheme. Americans tend to identify with the middle class, irrespective of income (Lassell, 1954). In the United States, prestige and ideological factors are less important than in Europe. Classificatory schemes employed by sociologists and social psychologists usually use multiple criteria, such as the Index of Status Characteristics (I.S.C.) or the method of Evaluative Placement (E.P.) using ranking by local judges developed by Warner and his associates (Hatt, 1950). A very popular scale in educational reasearch is the Hollingshead two factor scale, which emphasizes education of father and occupational level (Hollingshead, 1958). Although there is, in general, an absence of class consciousness in the United States, class differences based on income level present substantial barriers to individual and group improvement. These differences have been discussed in terms of "life chances." These life chances are very real, and do not reflect a mere theoretical construct, although class identification requires the use of scaling devices.

Social class correlates are not accurate predictors for individual intelligence or academic achievement. Other factors, such as of educational level of parents (Loevinger, 1940; Thorndike, 1951), and particularly IQ of the mother (Honzik, 1940), were more significant. Most social class factors, such as home ownership or quality of housing, are merely additional or actual indices of socio-economic status as represented by income.

Social class carries with it a cumulative rather than uniform deficit. While much attention has been recently given to the disadvantaged beginning learner, as in Headstart programs, the depressing effects become more pronounced in the later years of school. The characteristics were demonstrated 40 years ago by Graham (1926) among Negro children in the Atlanta, Georgia schools, and by Garth, Lovelady, and Smith (1930) in Oklahoma and Texas. Subsequently, Tomlinson (1944), in comparative work with siblings, demonstrated that most of the Negro gap below the white norm was accounted for by the older children.

The cumulative effect of social class on intellectual activity has been demonstrated with a variety of groups and settings: in the "hollows" of Appalachia (Sherman and Key, 1932);

in orphanage children (Skeels and Dyz Fillmore, 1939); in Spanish-speaking children of Mexican origin of the Southwest (Garth and Johnson, 1934); in American Indians (Hought, 1934); and among the Sousou of West Africa (Nissen, Machover, and Kinder, 1935).

The fact that there is a cumulative deficit, as measured by IQ tests, reflect two factors. The first is that early school expectancy, on which IQ tests are based, is not closely related to school achievement in the upper grades. The second factor is that the schools are inept at preparing the students for the type of abstract, verbal skills which are of critical importance in subsequent school success. It would appear that there is a difference in the intellectual functioning, as measured by the intelligence tests, at higher levels of schooling. Many lower class children can get by in the early grades because the tasks are not intellectually complex. The cultural deficit thus appears to be irreversible, because the school does little for the disadvantaged student to reverse the trend. Perhaps much closer attention is needed to develop in the curriculum of the disadvantaged training in the more complex processes, as suggested by Burt, (1953). The cumulative evidence indicates that the disadvantaged child is most severely handicapped at Burt's relational, judgmental level. Yet most programs for the disadvantaged deprive the child of training in intellectual abstraction.

The Disadvantaged Neighborhood. The disadvantaged neighborhood is usually described in terms of the slum conditions of metropolitan communities which present the most extreme conditions of social disorganization. The ubiquitous dope peddler is matched by the ubiquitous social worker (Padilla, 1958). The ambience is visually as well as physically stultifying (Deutsch, 1963). Dreary tenements and refuse-strewn streets are a preface to the shabby health, recreational and social facilities available (Abrams, 1965). An isolated pocket in the larger society (Deutsch, 1960), which is portrayed in authoritarian figure images (Groff, 1954), nevertheless breeds children with an early precocious independence (Ausubel and Ausubel, 1963). They learn how to fight, steal, and survive in the sidewalk jungle while more affluent children are rewarded for reading and writing (Silberman, 1964).

This description is no doubt accurate for many neighborhoods, but it is not accurate for all poor neighborhoods. Riesmann (1962) has cautioned against the stereotype of the culture of poverty. A poor neighborhood is not automatically a deprived neighborhood. Certain communities contribute a disproportionate share of the uneducated (Ginzberg and Bray, 1953), and the nesting effect of social class and other variables is particularly seen in epidemiological studies (Lemkau, 1956). The tendency to characterize all children uniformly merely by place of residence or group overlooks the many variables which characterize different individuals within a sub-cultural group resident in a particular neighborhood.

Home, Housing, and Health. The general deterioration and dilapidation that characterizes the neighborhoods in which the poor live is also carried over into the home. It is invariably crowded and noisy (Kneller, 1963; Riesmann, 1963). Crowded living and sleeping quarters, poor sanitation, lack of adequate food storage and disposal facilities, insects and rats contribute to high rates of illness and mortality. Negro longevity is substantially shorter (Drake, 1965), and the death rate from childhood diseases six times that for white children (Pettigrew, 1965). The slum, however, is color blind; the rate for infectious and respiratory diseases among all slum children is higher than for the normal population (Clark, 1965). Conditions in the rural slum are perhaps worse than in the urban slum; there are less ameliorative welfare services.

Mental, no less than physical health, suffers from poverty. The incidence rate is higher (Dreger and Miller, 1960), intensity severer (Harrington, 1963), and treatment delayed (MacDonald, 1965). Children have greater difficulties making personal adjustments; there is more destructive aggressive behavior (Shaw, 1965).

Rearing, Home Attitudes and Values. Because the disadvantaged do not constitute a monolithic group, either in terms of income, education, or ethnic origin, there is a range of practices rather than one modal behavior. It appears, however, that working class parents are more concerned with actual behavior while middle class parents are more concerned with intent (Kohn, 1959). Discipline takes a more immediate and physical form while middle and upper class parents use more verbal behavior and threats of delayed punishment (Leshan, 1952).

The mother expects the father to be a disciplinarian, restrictive rather than supportive in his behavior, whereas the father views child rearing as primarily a maternal responsibility (Kohn and Carroll, 1960). Some see underachievement as correlated with mother domination for boys (Gill and Spilka, 1962), especially among Negroes (Deutsch, 1960; Glazier and Moynihan, 1963), but mother dependence has also been found a trait among high achieving boys (Rosen and D'Andrade, 1959). The construct of mother domination among Negroes and lower class parents in general appears to be especially weak. Cross cultural observations tend to emphasize the importance of the mother in child rearing in all cultures. Mother domination may simply be a category which has resulted by contrast with the middle class society, in which the male frequently assumes more of the cooperative household functions with the wife that are usually relegated exclusively to the female in traditional cultures.

Boys, however, generally appear to be underdisciplined and girls overdisciplined (Brofrenbrenner, 1961), which might be attributed more validly to the emphasis on masculinity (Riessman, 1962) rather than to any breakdown in discipline. Relationships among parents and children appear to be more closed and rigid in comparison to the middle class, (Maas, 1951).

This is not only reflected in the lack of free verbal interplay (Milner, 1951), but also in the amount of general leisure-time family interaction (MacDonald, McGuire, and Havighurst, 1949).

Home Values and Education. Lower and working class people have less education than those in the managerial and professional classes. Many parents of poor families are also functionally illiterate or semi-illiterate. Since the poor have not substantially benefitted from the American educational system, it is not surprising to find a negative attitude toward education, especially what might be regarded as intellectuality. (Durkin, 1961; Cloward and Jones, 1963; Riessman, 1963; Harlen Youth Opportunities Unlimited, 1964). Anti-intellectualism is not, however, a prerogative of the poor (Hofstadter, 1963). Learning for its own sake is perhaps a myth promoted by academicians to justify their social status.

It is important to distinguish between anti-intellectuality and anti-education. Americans as a society have prided themselves on their pragmatism, and educational investment is frequently justified on the basis of manpower development. In this context, education is merely a method of adding capital value to the raw material of the unschooled. Hence, it is possible to be both anti-intellectual and pro-school, contradictory as it may sound.

There is evidence of both favorable and unfavorable attitudes toward schooling. The Ausubels (1963) and Harris (1961) tend to emphasize the lack of emphasis on education while others find that poor families want their children to continue school (Keller, 1963; Glazer and Moynihan, 1963). While educational aspirations decline with social class, most lower class parents expect their children to finish high school (Stendler, 1951).

Psychological Factors

Motivation and School Success. Educational and occupational aspiration is positively correlated with social class, when effects of intelligence are controlled (Sewel, Haller, and Straus, 1957; Hieronymus, 1951; McCandless, 1952). The goals of disadvantaged youth are relatively low (Bloom, Davis, and Hess, 1965) although sometimes overly ambitious in terms of abilities and performance requirements (Smiley, 1964). High aspirations among Negroes seem to reflect a fantasy rather than reality level (Smith and Anderson, 1962). The motivation for school success depends upon parental encouragement (Gould, 1941), an internalized set of values (Kahl, 1953), and a favorable self-image, (Krugman, 1965).

Low class is associated with low social status and underestimates of performance and overestimates of the performance of persons of high status (Harvey, 1953). This self-denigration is also applied to school work (Wylie, 1963). The disadvantaged are therefore characterized by an achievement syndrome (Rosen, 1956). Their estimates of the probability of their failure contribute to failure (Riese, 1962) whereas the middle class child predicts success. Success, in turn, stimulates higher successive levels of aspiration (Sears, 1940). The school unwittingly contributes to the failure of the disadvantaged by setting middle-class performance tasks which are beyond his reach (Deutsch, 1960). Socialization, alone, is not the primary factor in college aspiration; schooling which sets college as a standard of achievement is important, even as early as the first grade (Stivers, 1958). There is too little research to indicate that lower class children are actually motivated for learning more by material rather than abstract rewards (Terrel, Durkin, and Wiesley, 1959).

Self-Concept. One of the most popular descriptive studies in the field of school social-psychology is that of the self-concept. The general results of these studies indicate that children of lower socio-economic status and minority groups have less self-concept than other children. It is not yet clear to what extent, however, this lack of self-concept is a pre-existent function of the subculture or results from school contacts and lack of success in school.

More recent surveys of Negro self-concept (Soares and Soares, 1969; Conyers and Farmar, 1968) show that Negroes have a positive rather than negative self-image. Attempts to improve Negro self-image through intervention with Negro history (Johnson, 1966) or activist participation in a freedom school (Johnson, 1966b) seem to be unnecessary. It is likely that efforts are needed to improve academic efficiency rather than Negro self-concept. The Lewinian concept of identification with the aggressor theory, popular in the 1940's and 1950's (Lewin, 1941; Sarnoff, 1951) no longer appear to be substantiated. The increased distrust of whites (Conyers and Farmar, 1968) expressed by Negro high school students is an associative, if not causal factor, related to improved black self-concept.

Mexican-American school children have been subjects for the study of the self-fulfilling prophecy--that Mexican-Americans perceive themselves as inferior to Anglo children and therefore school achievement is inferior. The evidence on this point is contradictory. Parsons (Brickman, 1966) seems to hold this view but a study of Carter (1968) does not support the assumption that Mexican-Americans have a more negative self-image than Anglo students. However, the cultural contexts of the subjects have been different--one being industrial and urban and the other rural and agricultural. In view of the fact that Mexican-Americans have stereotyped images of Anglos--braggarts, conceited, inconstent, insincere, mercenary (Simmons, 1961)--as well as strong patterns of inter-familial relations (Rubel, 1966), the burden of proof on the self-fulfilling prophecy lies with the advocates of this point of view. Mexican-American children in their contact with the Anglo-dominated school often carry the attitudes of suspicion and mistrust that retard efforts at acculturation designed for the benefit of Spanish-speaking people (Saunders, 1954). As a result of the lack of willingness to cooperate as well as cultural barriers, Mexican-American children may not succeed in school. The lack of encouragement given to schooling is characteristic of the poor of different sub-cultures in the United States--Negro, Indian, and white. The lack of self-identity with the school, however, should not be confused with any self-denigration growing out of an unfavorable comparison between Anglo- and Mexican-American cultures.

Language and Social Class. Systematic studies have confirmed what has been known by simple observation and listening since time immemorial about social class differences and language. Differences in upper and lower class English were wittily and satirically dramatized in Shaw's Pygmalion and more recently popularized in "My Fair Lady."

As with other status studies, however, language and social class have not generated any theories of pedagogic remediation. The pre-school program of Bereiter and Engleman is an exception, and proposes systematic formal instruction in direct verbal learning (Karnes, 1969). Notwithstanding the work of Ausubel (1964), John (1963), and Deutsch (1964) that emphasizes the abstract language deficit, most language programs for the disadvantaged emphasize the acquisition of standard syntax (Lynch and Tidwell, 1969), or the increase in general vocabulary through sense-label association (Francis, 1969) rather than the development of abstract language power.

Studies indicating language differences by social class are over thirty years old. The pioneering work of McCarthy (1930), Day (1032) and Davis (1937) showed greater language power in every aspect with increase in socio-economic class. Social class differences in speech are observable in infancy (Irwin, 1948a, 1948b), as are the detrimental effects of institutional rearing where the lack of verbal interactions parallels the rearing practices of lower class children (Brodbeck and Irwin, 1946; Dawe, 1942; Fleming, 1942; Goldfarb, 1943, 1945; Williams and McFarland, 1937).

The cumulative effects of a deprived language background show up in less total use of language in the school setting. This has given some investigators the impression that the disadvantaged child was a nonverbal child or inarticulate child (Blank and Solomon, 1968; Hurst and Jones, 1966). However, other studies have emphasized that while the disadvantaged child may lack verbal facility in the school setting, he is equally as verbal as the middle-class child in his peer setting, although syntax may be sub-standard, sentences short, and word use unvaried. Houston (1969) uses the term nonschool and school "register" to distinguish between the colloquial language of every-day communication and the formal language of school instruction. These terms are roughly equivalent to Bernstein's public or restricted and formal or elaborated categories (1961, 1962) and the expressive-receptive categories of Deutsch and his associates (Deutsch, Maliver, Brown and Cherry, 1964).

There is no such thing as a primitive language and every language is suitable for the needs of communication (Lenneberg, 1964). However, the disadvantaged child is handicapped in the abstract, formal language required for school success. While the middle class child acquires from the process of socialization both the public and formal speaking registers, because he is accustomed to hearing both kinds of language, the disadvantaged child is not exposed to the formal register until he enters school.

The detrimental deficits of language become more pronounced the longer the student remains in school (Ausubel, 1963; Deutsch, 1963, 1964b). This deficit is reflected in sentence maturity and complexity (Anastasi and D'Angelo, 1952; Thomas, 1962); sound discrimination and range of oral vocabulary (Deutsch and Brown, 1964), and articulation (Davis, 1937; Templin, 1953; Pavenstedt, 1965), especially with respect to final consonants (Hancock County, 1968; McDavid, 1968).

Minority group membership accentuates language social class differences among Spanish speaking bilinguals (Anastasi and Cordova, 1953; Anastasi and de Jasus, 1953) and among Negroes (Pasaminick, 1946; Knoblock and Pasamanick, 1953; and Pasamanick and Knoblock, 1955). Bilingualism is not, per se, a negative factor (Jones, 1960). Differences in the morphological and phonological characteristics of oral language as spoken by blacks and whites, however, are less pronounced, in the south than in the north (Stewart, 1968).

Klineberg (1935) was among the first to emphasize the relation of the adverse effect of a deficient language to IQ tests administered to Negro children. Brown (1944) and subsequent investigators have pointed out the relationship of low IQ to language level (Deutsch 1964). The language handicap which impairs school performance (Fusco, 1964) eventually contributes to lower class dislike of school (Cohn, 1959). Continuation of the language deficit eventually contributes to school dropout (Shrieber, 1967).

Language deficiencies are nevertheless susceptible to correction through training. While the effects are more dramatic in infancy (Gray and Klaus, 1963), language intervention is also successful for intermediate age (Pringle and Bossio, 1958; Shrieber, 1958). Lack of systematic stimulation to use oral language, over emphasis on formal grammar, and a slavish dependence on sight-word reading are school barriers which inhibit the disadvantaged student from acquiring language skills needed for school success (Houston, 1969).

Language, Cognition, and School Achievement. In the educational literature, language is too often discussed as if it were an impediment to learning. Seldom is there a conference on learning or educational measurement where an emphasis on verbal knowledge (Ebel, 1969) is not met by some kind of rejoinder emphasizing practical knowledge without verbal facility (Gleser, 1969). Certainly in those tasks requiring motor and performance skills, whether it is playing the piano, putting the shot, installing a pipe, or repairing a generator, a functional performance test is a more valid test than a paper and pencil test of knowledge. In such cases, manipulative dexterity is preferred to verbal explanation. Reliable evidence of a good automobile mechanic is the ability to repair an automobile, just as reliable evidence of a good hunter is the kill and not a description of the chase.

But such dichotomies between knowledge and performance are misleading. While schooling has gradually embraced learnings once assigned to apprenticeships (craft training) or socialization (cooking), the school preeminently remains a place to acquire knowledge through language. The primary task assigned to the school is the teaching of reading and writing, tasks which are concerned with the decoding and encoding of oral language. These skills are then systematically employed in the study of the various subjects through which literate cultures organize and transmit their knowledge. Subject matter competency is measured by language facility in the knowledge area. The social studies in particular are language studies, since the categories developed for organization and explanation are essentially logical and can not be empirically tested. Anthropoligists have long pointed out that the most important component of culture is language. Language is species specific, and is a vicarious means by which man transmits the past, plans for the future, and embraces the present. It is therefore no wonder that any societal group that is language handicapped will also be handicapped in associated areas denominated cognition and school achievement.

Language deficiency shows up markedly in the ability to label, discriminate, categorize, and generalize (John, 1963; John and Goldstein, 1964). There is a severe comprehension gap (Bernstein, 1961) and the ability to follow directions is limited (Bloom, Davis, and Hess, 1965). The disadvantaged child tends to be concrete in his intellectual functioning (McCandless, 1952), more motoric (Deutsch, 1963), and defective in conceptualization (Siller, 1957); poor in visual imagery (Bean, 1942); and makes a poor transition to abstract thought (Ausubel, 1964).

These general language deficiencies show up in such general measures as intelligence and aptitude. The language handicap of the disadvantaged child is reflected in poorer intelligence test scores (Deutsch and Brown, 1964; Fischer, 1966) and in other aspects of school achievement. The reading deficit is accentuated the longer children remain in school (Hilliard and Troxell, 1937; Newton, 1959; New York Board of Education, 1960; Haryou, 1964; Hancock County 1969).

Language deficiency is therefore cumulative (Klineberg, 1963). Low-class and minority status children become less able to handle the intellectual tasks as they move up by school grades (Deutsch, 1965).

Social Class, Language, and Cognitive Style. The relationship of low socio-economic status to language usage, IQ score, and tests of school achievement have led some observers to conclude that low class children have a different cognitive style. Riessman (1962) is one of the most articulate exponents of this point of view, and uses the construct of motoric or physical to identify the learning style. Some of these alleged cognitive style differences are seen in their preference for drawing, role playing, use of fingers in counting and lips in reading, participation in sports, thinking in spatial rather than temporal terms, and higher scores on IQ performance rather than IQ verbal tests. These descriptions, like most of the other status evidence, is not quantifiably reliable, and may be no more than a class caricature which emerges from an attempt to draw class distinctions.

There is a vast difference in saying that lower class children have some language and cognitive handicaps and using these handicaps to construct a difference in cognitive style. The fundamental basis for measuring intelligence in literate societies is language. There are differences in language facility and fluency. But a difference in frequency may not imply any difference in style, that is, some fundamental difference in the way learning takes place. To conclude that the disadvantaged have a motoric rather than a verbal cognitive style may place the school in the position even more than at present of a stereotyping which leads to the self-fulfilling prophecy. Shepard (1968) has cautioned against the tendency to infer differences in learning style from differences in school achievement. Many terms used with the disadvantaged learner are value laden, such as potential dropout, culturally deprived, and disadvantaged. Teachers often have a negative impression when told that a child is from a lower class (Fisher, 1961). The emphasis should be on specific identification of learning difficulties, not on stereotyping (Karp and Sigel, 1965).

Disadvantaged as Mental Retardates. Children from lower socio-economic classes have measured intelligence and achievement test scores which characterize them as mentally retarded. Mental retardation and mental deficiency should not be confused. Mental deficiency is a neurologically pathological condition, and implies some central nervous system disorder (Sarason, 1953). Mental retardation, however, is not characterized by central nervous system disorder and primarily reflects sub-cultural factors. The retardation is not absolute, but depends upon relative cultural expectancies (Kanner, 1949) and cultural and educational background (Ginzberg and Bray, 1953).

In the language of the school dealing with lower socio-economic status and school achievement, the construct of mental retardation is not popular. It is primarily used in special education to differentiate feeblemindedness resulting from cultural factors, and therefore subject to remediation, from feeblemindedness resulting from constitutional factors and therefore subject to little remediation.

More extensive use of the construct of mental retardation, however, can be useful to teachers of the disadvantaged. Montessori, for example, used insights gained with adult mental retardates to construct her program of early learning for disadvantaged tenement children in the slums of Rome. The construct of mental retardation also emphasizes intervention, an attempt by special and supplementary action to alleviate the condition, whereas much of the literature on the disadvantaged substitute status studies for action. The literature on the disadvantaged is less scientific and more frantic in tone than the literature on the mental retardate, notwithstanding the fact that the school performance of the disadvantaged places him in the category of some degree of mental retardation. This difference in approach probably reflects the more technical training of the researchers dealing with mental retardation, whereas the literature on the disadvantaged constitutes a potporri ranging from muckraking to carefully controlled psychological studies.

Intelligence and Achievement: Culture Fair Testing. Repeated psychoeducational appraisals of children have shown a relationship between intelligence, as defined by standard tests, and socioeconomic status (Clarke and Clarke, 1953; Deutsch and Brown, 1964; Dreger and Miller, 1960; Eells, 1953; Higgins and Sivers, 1958; Montague, 1964; Osborne, 1960). Poor performance of low socioeconomic classes is also found in achievement in school subjects (Deutsch, 1960, 1965; Osborne, 1960; Feldman and Weiner, 1964; Hansen, 1960; Stallings, 1960; Cooper, 1964; Kennedy, Van De Riet, and White, 1963). There is a large body of research, epitomized by the work of Davis and Havighurst (1947, 1948) which clearly indicates that conventional intelligence tests are composed of items to which lower class children have less exposure than middle and upper class children. One result has been the culture-fair testing movement; in extreme cases, as in New York City, intelligence testing has been abolished. There has also been much controversy over the stability of the IQ, and the effectiveness of compensatory programs in raising IQ. Some general comments about intelligence testing appear to be important.

Jensen (1969) reminded his readers that conventional tests of intelligence were developed from the outset by Binet and Simon in the school setting to measure what teachers expected of children in school. The reasons such tests as the Stanford-Binet and Wechsler are useful are two-fold. Western society is a literature society, and the tests measure with reasonable accuracy what is expected of children in school. Furthermore, Western society has evolved a complex, hierarchical job structure in which there is a correlation between job placement and the abstract intellectual skills which are developed with schooling. High correlations between school achievement tests and intelligence tests result primarily from the fact that they measure essentially the same factors, whether they are denominated g or by some other name.

It is perhaps unfortunate that the original tests were ever named intelligence tests; a better name would have been school tests. This undoubtedly would have helped to avoid much of the blind alleys and controversy which has revolved around the use of the word intelligence. Any intelligence test is both cultural bound and performance oriented; any intelligence test constructed will reflect social norms and cultural expectancies. The fact that a school intelligence test in the United States reflects but a limited range of behavior is beside the point. A high IQ scorer on the Stanford might die within a few hours in the Kalahari desert or Alaskan tundra; a hot or cold desert hunter who excelled in his native habitat might find survival equally difficult in New York City. Intelligence tests do correlate highly with social and occupational expectancies within our culture, notwithstanding the range of intelligence or achievement measures within occupations. Furthermore, an absolutely culture fair test would be meaningless, because it would fail to discriminate between performance levels. Some other kind of test would then have to be used.

One of the best known culture fair tests is the Davis-Eells Test of General Intelligence or Problem Solving Ability (Davis and Eells, 1953). Nevertheless, this test has not eliminated socioeconomic class bias. (Haggard, 1954; Noll, 1960; Anselino and Shedd, 1955; Altus, 1956; Geist, 1954; Rosenblum, Keller, and Papania, 1955; Stenguist, 1953). The Davis-Eells test does not have the predictive value of the Stanford-Binet for school performance and does not eliminate social class bias. However, the lack of utility in the David-Eells test emphasizes the fact that an intelligence test useful in a school context must relate to the kinds of performance expected in school. Lower mean scores have been obtained on this test with Spanish-American children than on conventional measures (Stablein, Willey, and Thomson, 1961).

Research with the Raven's Progressive Matrices Test by Higgins and Sivers (1958) and McArthur and Elley (1963) has brought contradictory results, and it is doubtful that it presents any advantage over regular tests. The claims of Kippitz (1964) that the Bener Visual Motor Gestalt Test affords an adequate culture fair test for young children has not been substantiated by other investigators.

Intelligence as defined in the school-culture of the United States can be measured. Intelligence testing, however, is often abused. Low scores are interpreted negatively as a limitation on further action, and the child is deprived of the very kind of stimulation required for him to acquire school performance skills. Since lower class children account for a disproportionate percentage of low performance and mental retardation, this negative interpretation means that the school institutionalizes and perpetuates differences in achievement resulting from social class differences.

Performance in situations requiring applied behavior has repeatedly been demonstrated to be frequently higher than predicted by IQ performance for mentally defective adults (Anderson, 1923; Baller, 1936; Fairbanks, 1945; Kennedy, 1948; Lurie, 1932; Muench, 1944) as well as for mentally retarded adults (Ginzberg and Bray, 1953; Satter, 1955; Satter and McGee, 1954a, 1954b).

Performance requires motivation and application, as well as ability. In school situations the terms under- and over-achievers, however inappropriate, indicate that success in school performance tasks is often different from performance levels predicted from IQ. The emphasis in school teaching and testing, as Jensen suggests (1969), should be on school achievement tasks. In the highly focused program of Bereiter and Englemann, however, increased performance on school tasks have also brought about favorable and sustained IQ increases (Bereiter, 1969).

Another abuse that results from the use of intelligence tests is the assumption that intelligence is composed merely of those items called for on the intelligence tests. While the Guilford (1967) approach to the structure of intellect has not yet produced any revolution in either school teaching or testing, it does serve to emphasize that intelligence has many facets. His construct of a type of productive intellect might prove useful in learning and testing situations to create opportunities for the disadvantaged to demonstrate performance behaviors (Sarason, 1959).

Dissatisfaction with conventional intelligence testing has led to a number of new recommendations concerning psychological appraisal of the disadvantaged in the schools. Some of the recommendations include home environment index (Dave, 1963); use of generic versus functional category noun responses (Spain, 1962); use of Riesmann's 1962 characteristics (Barbe, 1965); more exact definition of cultural deprivation by social class (Clift, 1964); and diagnostic-curriculum oriented measures (Larson and Olson, 1963); determination of potentials and styles of learning (Gordon, 1963); age-readiness testing (Lennon, 1964; Weinter and Feldman, 1963), study of mental processes (Whiteman, 1964) or intellectual factors (Sigel, 1963); differential ability patterns by ethnic group and social class (Lesser, Fifer, and Clark, 1964); and creativity (Davidson, Greenberg, and Gerver, 1962). There is some agreement that the schools ought to go beyond cognitive measurement (Urdal, 1963; Joint Committee on Testing, 1962).

However, desirable growth in emotional maturity, development of social skills, development of healthy attitudes, democratic behavior and ethnic tolerance may be as school products, the fact remains that these are not a part of the instructional curriculum. There is a tendency for appraisal to merge in the domain of school philosophy and objectives. The position taken here is that the disadvantaged learner is not succeeding at school tasks. School tasks are not arbitrary, but have developed over the years in response to the needs of society. The school cannot by itself redefine these needs, because its role is cultural transmission. The challenge is not to use different kinds of measures to give a more favorable picture of the disadvantaged learner. The challenge is to devise more effective school instruction, and to make any kind of first appraisal to come after performance. The motto should be teach and then test not test and then teach. Under the illusion of diagnosis and prescription, the disadvantaged are all to often not taught. Conventional tests, however, need not be discarded because they do measure intellectual processes associated with school achievement. More emphasis, however, should be given to the achievement test specific to the learning task.

Language. Language is the most important means by which a child acquires the behavioral and knowledge expectancies of his culture. The formal knowledge expectancies in American culture are transmitted through the school. Any language impairment, therefore, can have a serious impact on scholastic performance. Two major lines of investigation have been followed. One deals with the relationship of bilingualism and minority group membership to school performance; the second deals with the structure and use of language in general. Since both intelligence and achievement tests depend heavily upon verbal components, children who have language handicaps perform poorly on conventional school tests.

The issue of bilingualism in the United States is an important one because there are large numbers of children who come from homes in which English is not the native language. Here it is important to understand that the question of bilingualism is not one of language equality. In polyglot communities in which two or more oral communication systems may be acquired, there are no adverse bilingual effects. In the United States, however, there has been no true bilingualism. The child of a minority group, speaking a language at home different from the majority language and the language of instruction in the school, is expected to acquire a second language. In such cases, as with children of Indian-speaking parents, bilingualism presents not merely a case of dual communication, but of natural conflict.

There have been many reviews of bilingual research over the years, such as those of Darcy (1953) and Arsenian (1945). The evidence indicates that monoglost generally exceed monoglots on test performance, the disparity reflecting the amount of verbal emphasis. However, the disparity is reduced with age, when the environment is held constant, and varies with population groups. Thus polyglot Jews of New York and London exceed monoglots, whereas rural Welsh and Spanish speaking children in the Southwest United States suffer a severe handicap. Bilingualism is not a factor which accelerates or retards intellectual development. Where bilingualism is a handicap, it is a language handicap, and is particularly evident at the elementary level in such verbal subjects as literature and social studies. Since most bilingual children in the United States come from minority groups which are poor, the bilingual language handicap is associated with lower social class status as well as cultural differences.

The language of lower socio-economic groups differs significantly from the language of middle and upper groups in form and content (Bernstein, 1959, 1960), structural complexity (Templin, 1958; Loban, 1964) vocabulary (Figurel, 1964); conceptualization (Ressell, 1954); process evaluation (Bruner, 1961), and perceptual (Deutsch, 1963) and auditory (Christine, 1964) discrimination.

Reading. Effective reading is an indispensable prerequisite to success in school. However, it is estimated that approximately twenty percent (Allen, 1969) of the school population have significant reading deficiencies. These deficiencies become more pronounced the longer children remain in school (Hancock County, 1969).

Few reading studies are specifically associated with the social class. However, Deutsch (1960), Osborne (1960), Sexton (1961), Barton (1963), Deutsch and Brown (1964), Cooper (1964), and Feldman and Weiner (1964) have demonstrated the relationship between socio-economic status and reading achievement. Since IQ is positively correlated with reading achievement, and social class with IQ, it is not surprising to find that reading, another form of verbal activity, is related to social class differences.

Under Title I, more money has been allocated to reading improvement than to any other specific activity. The results have been disappointing, and reading improvement still continues to be a top priority at the national as well as local level. In the past, reading specialists have tended to emphasize causes of reading disability other than methods of instruction (Bond and Tinker, 1957) and have tended to ignore their own research evidence which tends to indicate advantages in beginning reading emphasizing a code rather than meaning (Chall, 1967; Bond and Dystra, 1967; Gurren, 1965). Notwithstanding the limited experimental evidence at hand specifically for socio-economic class, it would appear that more systematic emphasis at the outset on code acquisition is beneficial to children of lower socio-economic status (Daniels and Diack, 1956; Gardner, 1942). This finding is consistent with other evidence which indicates that for the disadvantaged a direct, structured, day-by-day attack may be the best approach to school achievement. A phonics-linguistic approach is superior to the basal reader approach in teaching reading to children at both the first grade (Bond, and Dykstra 1967), and second-grade (Dykstra, 1967) levels. These results are consistent with the direct verbal language intervention approach (Karnes, 1969) (Spiegerl, 1967), the approach also effectively used in World War II with the training of illiterates (Witty, 1967).

Heredity, Race, Intelligence and Culture. The problem of heredity, race, and intelligence has long interested psychologists and sociologists as well as educators. The problem is not an academic one. If intelligence is a function primarily of heredity, then efforts to raise intelligence through formal schooling will have limited success. If, on the other hand, intelligence is a function primarily of the experiences provided through culture then efforts to raise intelligence through schooling will have more success.

In the decades of the 1950's and 1960's, the nature-nurture controversy tended to be replaced with an interactionist explanation of intelligence. According to this explanation, it is impossible to determine precisely what proportions of intelligence might be attributable to heredity and what proportions might be attributed to experiences resulting from environment.

On the one hand, some studies emphasize the greater influence of heredity on intelligence: monozygotic twins reared in different environments (Newman, Freeman, and Holziner, 1937; Shields, 1962); children in foster homes compared with children reared with their parents (Leahy, 1935); monozygotic with dizygotic (Blewett, 1954; Husen, 1960); and IQ changes of culturally deprived children placed in foster homes and nursery schools (Gray and Klaus, 1965).

On the other hand, studies tend to emphasize the influence of experience on intelligence: restricted environments resulting from institutionalization (Goldfarb, 1943; Provence and Lipton, 1963); lack of sensory stimulation resulting from physiological impairment (Senden, as cited in Hebb, 1949; Eisen, 1962); early deprivation in animals (Risesen, 1950, 1961; Nissen, Chow, and Semmes, 1951; Melzack, 1954; Clarke, Heron, Fetherstonhaugh, Forgays and Hebb, 1951; Thompson and Heron, 1954a, 1954b; Melzack and Scott, 1957; Zimbardo, 1958; Harlow,1962; Seay, Alexander, and Harlow, 1964; Jensen and Babbitt, 1964); and the positive effects of an enriched environment on performance, especially early stimulation, with both animals (Hymovitch, 1952; Weininger, McClelland, and Arima, 1954; Gibson and Walk, 1956; Gibson and Walk, 1958; Levine, 1959; Anastasi, 1934; Noble, 1959).

In view of the contradictory nature of the evidence, there has been a tendency to take a mediating position in the nature-nurture controversy, but with an increasing tendency to emphasize the positive benefits resulting from environmental intervention. This trend has been emphasized to such an extent that extravagant claims are made for the effect of environmental manipulation, such as in the Headstart programs.

Earlier assumptions about the superiority of one race to another, reflected in early nineteenth and twentieth century literature, has been largely abandoned in view of the over-generalizations from scientific data by racists. The issue of race and intelligence is a matter of tremendous practical importance in the United States, where there are African, Amerind, and Asiastic as well as European races (Garn, 1961). If intelligence is primarily inherited, efforts to raise the performance of low achieving non-European groups is, a priori, doomed to failure because a race is a biological breeding population which transmits genetically the capacity for intelligence.

Since the beginning of the testing movement, the performance of Negroes on intelligence tests has been consistently less than the performance of whites (Kennedy, Van De Riet, and White, 1963; Kennedy, 1969; Shuey, 1966). Shuey interprets the evidence as supporting a genetic basis for the difference between white and Negro performance but Kennedy emphasizes the contamination of socio-economic status and intelligence.

More recently D.R. Jensen (1969), drawing heavily upon the work of Sir Cyril Burt, has revived the genetic thesis, and, with Shuey (1966) suggests that the evidence of lower Negro performance may have a genetic basis. Unlike most studies which used empirical twin observations to measure the influence of heredity, Jensen uses a method of statistical analysis to determine that aspect of intelligence which may be attributed to heredity. The Jensen article has been the subject of heated rebuttal (Kagan, 1969; Hunt, 1969; Bloom, 1969; Crow, 1969; Bereiter, 1969; Elkind, 1969; Cranbach, 1969; Brazziel, 1969).

One of the major problems in race-intelligence controversy is the confounding of race with culture. There is no population anywhere that does not have a culture. In terms of technological development there is a much greater diversity in culture than there is in biological variations among different populations. Because races constitute breeding populations separated by natural and social barriers, it is inevitable that certain cultural variations are associated with certain populations; the same barriers to population hybridization are also barriers to acculturation and cultural diffusion. It is, however, very dangerous to transform the association of culture traits with race into a causative explanation of race as the independent variable. For example, developmental research of African babies in both the United States (Bayley, 1965) and in Uganda (Geber, 1958) indicate an earlier African precocity in motor performance in infants compared with those of European origin. However, Geber is careful to point out that this characteristic is not uniform; among the children studied from the higher, Westernized classes, the precocity declined. Furthermore, the developmental tasks of children are not uniform across cultures, but vary from culture to culture (Dennis, 1957).

Negroes in the United States, including the descendents of free Negroes in Northern states who have had a longer history of emancipation, have been the systematic objects of cultural discrimination for centuries. On the basis of the limited evidence at hand, it is premature to make any judgments about innate racial differences and intelligence. The fact that Negro performance is below white performance, except for a small overlap, cannot be controverted. However, the few years in which any serious attempt has been made to upgrade the level of Negro abilities--and this has often been underfinanced and poorly conceived--does not provide adequate experimental basis to support the claims of genetic Negro intellectual inferiority. Let it be assumed, that Negroes have full opportunity to participate completely in the mass culture without any vestiges of racial discrimination. It would nevertheless require from three to four generations for them to become a part of the mass community. Not until then could the effects of racial discrimination be minimized and valid comparisons be made of the performance of Euro-Africans and Europeans.

In the meantime, from a practical pedagogical standpoint, efforts to ameliorate the condition of the Negro population in the

United States must proceed on the practical assumption that there is no innate intellùal difference in the white and Negro populations. This does not preclude making adaptations in instructional materials to suit the needs of the disadvantaged learner. One of the affirmative suggestions of Jensen, notwithstanding his genetic thesis, is the need for more effective instructional procedures with the disadvantaged learner. Studies of parents as teachers indicate that parents of low socio-economic status are less effective organizers of abstract instruction than are middle income parents. This appears to be related to differences in generalizing verbal facility. Since Negroes as a group are disporportionately represented in the lower income groups, it is inevitable that differences in intelligence and achievement may appear as racial differences as with Hawaiians, (Stewart, Dole, and Harris, 1967), when, in fact, they may be primarily differences in life chances related to socio-economic status. (Anderson, 1962; Fifer, and Clark, 1964; Deutsch and Brown, 1964; Imperatore, 1969).

Ethnicity and IQ: The Negro. The assumption that some ethnic groups are inherently inferior to other ethnic groups is exceedingly old. The intelligence testing movement has tended to reinforce these assumptions, because the association of ethnic differences with lower test scores uncontrolled for social class and other cultural variables can be interpreted causally. Articles which purport to demonstrate the inherent intellectual inferiority of the Negro increased as a result of uncritical and careless use of World War I testing data. They have been consitently used to justify segregated schools. In the 1970's lower Negro performance scores will be used to justify establishment of white private schools.

The position taken here is not to deny the genetic factor. Heredity is a factor in mental retardation, because children cannot escape the social class of their parents, and the limited opportunities which lack of parental education, a small income, and a depressed neighborhood imply. Heredity is social as well as genetic. Because of the long history of bias associated with genetic interpretations of intelligence, however, educators should leave this out of their accounting. The evidence is often contradictory, inadequate, and speculative, but many professionals for example Garrett (1947) and Shuey (1966), make a racial explanation of IQ differences. Racial differences in intelligence have never been taboo, as Jensen (1969) states. Instead, racial explanations were discredited because they were used for racist ends. Whether Jensen's revival of the racial explanation for Negro lower school performance will be helpful or harmful will have to wait the scrutiny of time. The danger is that his racial explanation will be used as an excuse to justify a retreat from corrective programs for the disadvantaged, and little attention will be given to his emphasis that all children can learn and that school learning and not the method should be the focus of school programs.

A number of studies over the years have indicated differences in test performance by ethnic group. Artlitt (1921), in a comparison of native born white, Italian, and Negro, attributed a nine point IQ difference to race, but did not control for factors such as language, length of residence in the United States, or educational level of parents.

Bere (1924) pioneered in a study of differences in thought processes using Jewish, Italian and Hebrew boys of immigrant parents, and concluded that Jewish students thought in more abstract and Italians in more concrete terms with Bohemians falling in between. Mead (1927), in a study of Italian and American children added to the sophistication of ethnic studies by including such variables as amount of English spoken in home, social status, and length of residence in the United States. She concluded that the IQ measure alone was not adequate basis for determining inate capacity. Thompson (1928) and Viteles (1928) reviewed a number of comparative studies of IQ and white intelligence and concluded that the existing tests measured acquired, and not inate intelligence. Hence such tests formed no valid basis for making racial comparisons.

Daniel (1932) made a list of factors, such as sampling, statistical considerations, norms, and test artifacts, which should be taken ihto consideration in making interracial comparisons. In the almost forty years which have passed since Daniel wrote, statistical and measurement methodology has undergone vast improvements, especially with respect to cultural factors (Klineberg, 1941), such as motivation, test rapport, schooling language, interest, attitude, and social status, and socio-economic class (Davis and Havighurst, 1959). However, Sarason (1959) notes that application of the Daniel criteria alone would invalidate most comparisons of racial intelligence.

The majority of studies in the context of race and intelligence make the assumption, implicit or explicit, that there is a hierarchy of racial intelligences. Most of the data is concerned with Negroes in the United States, and the simple explanation is often followed that the association of lower Negro test scores may be causally explained by race. A number of studies over the years caution against such a simple explanation.

One method of study is to examine the test performance of Negroes in different cultures. Nissen, Machover, and Kinder (1935) used as their sample Negroes from West Virginia, St. Helena, and West Africa. West Africa is important as the area from which most of the New World Negro slaves were imported. West African Negroes scored lowest; New World Negroes scored higher, but below standardized white norms. In interpreting their findings, the authors caution about taking a test of actual performance and generalizing to a level of innate differential ability, particularly when race and environment are contaminated variables.

Another approach has been to test children of mixed racial parentage to determine whether white blood has any favorable effect on IQ. Garth (1933) studied children of Indian-white parentage in grades four to nine, administering the Otis Classification Test to 1022 children. On purely cultural grounds, it would be expected that children of mixed parentage would perform higher than Indian children. However, it was found that the amount of schooling received was much more significant than the percent of Indian or white blood. The 1936 survey of Witty and Jenkins purporting to deal with proportions of Negro and white ancestry found that the weight of evidence pointed to a lack of relationship.

A social class difference exists between Indian-white and Negro-white mixtures in the United States. Frequently the mixed Indian enters a different social status; a Euronegro in genotype is socially classified as a Negro. Thus although the Indian population has existed as a separate breeding population longer than has the Negro population, the social stigma attached to Euronegros in the United States places them in a Negro environment. This environment has constituted a caste environment, with the concomitant deprivations that a caste system implies (Warner, 1936). Within this caste system, there are from five to six times as many Negroes in the lower-lower class than there are whites (Hill and McCall, 1950).

Other studies have suggested that some groups, like Indians and Negroes, are less time-oriented than whites, and thus perform less well on a speed than on a power test (Klineberg, 1928). Smith (1943) found in 1938 that the total performance of various ethnic groups in Hawaii had increased over 1924 testing, but that relative positions remained unchanged. This finding is consistent with Wheeler's study (1932, 1942) of the general increase in intelligence of East Tennessee mountain children over a ten year period. Control of prenatal and perinatal environment indicates that postnatal influences on behavior does not manifest itself until Negro children begin to interact socially (Passaminick, 1946).

Jensen (1969) has summarized much of the recent literature which might support a racial explanation of intelligence, and will not be repeated. The rebuttals and counter-rebuttal indicate that the research evidence on the effects of ethnicity and culture permit different interpretations, according to the preferences of the researcher.

From a standpoint of educational policy, the ethnic-genetic controversy may be primarily theoretical. Cronback (1969, p. 197) makes this point when he says that "in writings for educators, it is pointless to stress heredity. The educator's job is to work on the environment, teaching him about heredity can do no more than warn him not to expect easy victories." Jensen himself (p. 59) emphasizes this aspect of the issue when he says that "scholastic achievement is considerably less hereitable than intelligence... this means there is potentially much more we can do to improve school performance through environmental means than we can do to change intelligence per se... The proper evaluation of such programs should therefore be sought in their effects on actual scholastic performance rather than in how much they raise the child's IQ. If the difference in scholastic performance is primarily cultural, then the issue of intelligence and ethnicity is largely immaterial to the school problem of increasing performance.

Ethnic Groups

Mexican Americans. Disadvantaged children of Spanish-speaking families constitute the second largest group of educationally deprived children in the United States. In the four southwestern states of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona and California this ethnic element, with cultural and language barriers which differentiate them from the dominant Anglo population, constitute a major educational challenge.

Four-fifths of the Spanish-speaking population of the United States live in the Southwest. Today they are mainly urbanized, although the antecedents of this population came to the United States primarily as migrant laborers in the twentieth century (Kibbe, 1946). In 1960, the Spanish surname population, predominantly Spanish-speaking, numbered about 3,500,000 in the Southwest and constitute 12 percent of the population of the four states (Manuel, 1965).

From the time of American penetration of the Southwest, and particularly with the acquisition of Mexican territories by conquest with the Treaty of Guadaloupe-Hidalgo in 1848, Anglos have stereotyped Mexicans as lazy, good-for-nothing, and poor. As migrant laborers, they have been one of the most economically depressed groups in the United States (Burma, 1954). Discrimination in jobs has been accompanied by other traits of discrimination--in housing, education, law enforcement and general social treatment (Kibbe, 1964; McWilliams, 1961). Discrimination against Mexicans in the Southwest has been similar to that against Negroes in the Southeast, from jury service to public accommodations.

A result is that the Spanish-speaking population of the United States in the 1960's presents the classic correlates of poverty (Browning and McLemore, 1964); large families (Barrett, 1966; Heller, 1966), and low school achievement in contrast to the Anglo population. Characteristically, median years of school attendance is from three to four years behind that of Anglo attendance; less than 20 percent had some high schooling compared to 50 percent for Anglos and less than 5 percent had completed some years of college compared to 20 percent for Anglos. (Barrett, 1966; Browning and McLemore, 1964; Brussell, 1968).

The normative survey literature, describing the sociological and social-psychological characteristics of Mexican-Americans, is an extensive one. It ranges from studies of comparative value orientation (Kluckholm and Strodbeck, 1961; Edmondson, 1957) to the detrimental impact of the language difference on school experience (Chavez, 1956; Holland, 1960; NEA-Tucson Survey, 1966; Perales, 1965; Saunders, 1966; Sanchez, 1967).

Many of the studies tend to emphasize, implicitly if not explicitly, differences between Anglo and Mexican-American culture, as in the work of Kluckholm and Edmondson. Among the pronounced differences are language and religion, each of which contribute in subtle ways to the socialization of the individual prior to school experience. The Mexican-American group, as noted previously, is predominantly a poverty group. Many of the descriptions of Mexican-American characteristics, such as male domanance, extended family pattern, concept of time and notions of change, acceptance of fatalism, and lack of stress on higher education, appear to be descriptions of lower social class differences (Saunders, 1966). For example, a precis of psycho-social characteristics of Mexican-American culture in Brussell also reads similar to his summary of the psycho-social characteristics of the culture of poverty (pp. 25-35; 62).

Differences in language and income, which have contributed to de facto segregation in barrios (Clark, 1959; Mittelbach, Moore, and McDaniel, 1966), reinforce the tendency to make cultural contrasts between Anglos and Mexicans. However, these differences appear to reflect primarily socio-economic differences rather than cultural differences which are antithetic to schooling. In fact, much of the sociological literature tends to reinforce the stereotyped thinking Americans have had of Spanish-speaking peoples, a stereotype which was institutionalized a hundred years ago in the monumental works of Prescott. In this connection, it is rather interesting to observe that anthropologists who study the cultures of primitive peoples often strive to emphasize the universals in human culture and the extent to which, despite trait differences, these differences reflect different solutions to common problems. The language of American writers about Mexicans, however, seldom attempts to show common characteristics between Anglo and American culture. Moreover, the basis of their comparisons is frequently suspect, contrasting as they do low income groups with a folk cultural tradition with a hypothetical and idealized Anglo counterpart. As a practical matter, therefore, the general literature may be as equally harmful as it is helpful in creating in the minds of Anglo readers and teachers a greater understanding of these differences and their implications for education. Much of the sophisticated literature on barriers to acculturation (Clark, 1959; Naegle, 1967; Saunders, 1954) overlooks the simple fact that discrimination, segregation and the lack of education and job opportunity has created a vicious poverty cycle which repeats itself. Barriers within the Anglo community to the favorable employment of Mexican-Americans more than cultural restraints within the community have acted as barriers to acculturation.

As with other minority sub-cultures, the record of performance on school tests, whether of the school achievement or intelligence types, indicate that Mexican-American children perform at a lower level than their Anglo counterparts (Carlson and Henderson, 1950; Heller, 1966). Because of the fact that Mexican-American children's school performance is complicated by bilingualism, much attention has been given to the problem of dual languages and verbal mediation. Several researchers have found that administration of intelligence tests in English have contributed to a lower level of performance on the Stanford-Binet (Cook, 1951), Wechsler (Altus, 1953), and Otis (Johnson, 1951). Some, like Cook (1951) have emphasized the importance of verbal mediators in learning, even in the performance of non-verbal tests but Jensen (1961) and Rapier (1967) have both emphasized the importance of verbal mediators in learning, even in the performance of non-verbal tasks. Since any intelligence test is not a measure of innate capacity but achievement measures which sample previous knowledge and skills acquired through the culture, the question of a culture free or fair test is irrelevant. The Davis-Eells Test of General Intelligence or Problem-Solving Ability is just as heavily loaded with cultural items as the standard intelligence test. Translation and cultural adaptation of tests into Spanish for Puerto Rican children did not solve the problem of IQ standardization. While Roca (1955) attributes the lower IQ differences of Puerto Rican children to cultural differences, it is likely that the Puerto Rican sample reflected a lower class bias than the American sample. Administration of a test in Spanish does not raise performance. A Spanish translation of the Stanford-Binet,Form L, Mean Performance in Spanish, was ten points lower than mean performance on Form M, previously administered in English (Keston and Jimenez, 1954). Since the language of formal instruction in the school is English, it might be considered natural that the performance on a school-oriented measure would be best administered in English. It also reflects the fact that the concept of Spanish-speaking pupils as bilingual is a misnomer. Mexican-American school children come at best from semi-literate homes where the language of family orientation--Spanish--is primarily used for personal, daily living and not for formal thinking. The language is also corrupted by many borrowed Anglicisms. After the Spanish-speaking child begins schooling in English, the use of Spanish is truncated: because the Spanish vocabulary is limited, words are borrowed from English; English words are given Spanish pronunciations; and abstract-process erms in Spanish are not added to the basic vocabulary (Perales, 1965).

A number of approaches has been taken to the problem of ower intelligence test performance by Mexican-Americans. Holland (1960) developed the concept of language barrier, the difference in performance on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children with and without supplementary instructions in English. Jensen (1961) used a combination of an Immediate Recall Task, Paired Associate Task, and Serial Learning Task. Manuel (1965) emphasizes the importance of interpretation. He concludes that tests used with English-speaking are also appropriate for Spanish-speaking children in the context of the school in which English is the language of instruction, provided that the tests are not interpreted restrictively as to future performance based on some concept of innate capacity. Stanford (1963) emphasizes the importance of interpreting the scores as the present operational level of Spanish-speaking children in an English-speaking culture at a given point in time. Another approach has been the development at the University of Texas of comparable tests which give equivalent results whether administered in English or Spanish (Manuel, 1967a, 1967b).

In the absence of comprehensive testing, reports are contradictory concerning the decrease or increase of Mexican-American performance with time in school. Stanford (1963) expects them to increase whereas Heller (1966) and Senninger, as reported by Manuel (1965) report a decline in achievement with time spent in school, a finding consistent with the well documented record of another linguistically handicapped group--the American Negro. The initial equivalence of Mexican-American and Anglo children in the primary grades gives way to decreasing performance which becomes accelerated with grade progression. Senninger hypothesizes that this learning deficit may result from the undue emphasis on sight reading in the primary skills, which does not provide the linguistically handicapped student with the word power demanded in higher grades.

A majority of Mexican-American children fall into the category of disadvantaged with respect to school learning. Much emphasis has been placed on the handicaps of a bilingual background (Manuel, 1965) and the inability to speak English. However, it is now increasingly recognized that Mexican-American children suffer disadvantages in common with other children of low socio-economic status (Sanchez, 1966; Tireman, 1948). Drawing on extensive syntheses of psychological research by Bloom (1964) and Hunt (1961), which emphasizes the importance of the early years, for intellectual development, educators have concluded that enriched programs and compensatory efforts may come too late (Spodek, 1966; Manuel, 1967). However, no longitudinal studies have been designed and carried through with Mexican-American children to test the hypothesis of directed early stimulation as distinct from normal intra-familial stimulation and socialization. The evidence of the success of short-term, pre-school programs is largely testimonial (Texas Education Agency, 1962; Poulos, 1959; Sister Jean Marie, 1965), gives evidence of success for the first year only, and has no controls for the wash-out effects so characteristic of compensatory efforts by the end of the primary cycle. While short, pre-school programs may be better than nothing, it stretches credulity to conclude that any variation of a "summer headstart," whether based on a socialization, cognitive, parental involvement, or some other model, can offset six years of learning deprivation, (Manuel, 1965; Sanchez, 1966; Scott, 1967).

Notwithstanding the vast sums invested in early education over the last few years, there is little reliable evidence on treatment effects. One reason is that there are basic differences in estimating the cause of deprivation. On one hand, there is the school-cognition school of thought, which emphasizes that the school is not equipped to remedy all types of deprivation and should concentrate on tasks related to the performance of the child in his school role. This approach is best exemplified in the work of Bereiter and Engleman (1966) but is a model which has few emulators. One reason is that the prescriptive type of training in the Bereiter-Engleman approach leaves little room for the romantic notions usually associated with child development. More popular is the socialization model, which emphasizes an eclectic approach involving stimulation of self-concept, language, values, and home contacts (Getzels, 1968). The Office of Economic Opportunity used fiscal control to further its concept of parental involvement, placing its emphasis on socialization, (Office of Economic Opportunity, 1967a, 1967b) notwithstanding the fact that the evidence of parental involvement was suggestive (Abraham, 1956; Cahn, 1967; Dolan and Nevarez, 1967) rather than conclusive.

The research involving disadvantaged Mexican-American children thus far provides no evidence relating to unique program characteristics. Efforts at early stimulation run the gamut from sociodramatic play (Sonquist and Kamii, 1967) to facilitation of language development using a multisensory media approach (King, 1966) and inkblots (Koenig, 1953). Recommendations for teacher qualifications summarized in Brussell (1966) follow the recommendations of Goldberg (1966) and Riessmann (1967) which deal with the disadvantaged in general and not specifically with teachers of the Mexican-American. The recommendation of numerous writers that the teacher of Spanish-speaking children should know and appreciate the culture of the Spanish-speaking (Noreen, 1966; Galbraith, 1965; Chavez and Erickson, 1957) merely states more specifically the fact that teachers of disadvantaged students need to be more empathetic with the culture of the disadvantaged.

It should be emphasized, however, that the culture of Spanish-speaking Mexican-Americans is not the classic culture of Spain. It is, in many respects, a hybrid Spanish-Amerind rural folk culture, in the process of urbanization. There is, moreover, a real danger in the emphasis on teachers becoming sensitive to the culture of the disadvantaged. There is no increase in teacher competency *per se*, as measured by changes in pupil behavior, with an increase in knowledge about the disadvantaged, whether among Appalachian poor whites or poor Mexican-Americans. The language of the teacher in any situation, however, should be effective for communication. Therefore, the bilingual qualifications of the teacher of Mexican-Americans are not unique, but merely an attempt to further communication. Teachers of the disadvantaged in any environment typically used two modes of discourse--one for formal instruction and one for personal control and explanation. In the case of the bilingual teacher, Spanish becomes the equivalent for the teacher of the language of personal control.

In all the literature dealing with the Mexican-American, it is striking that there is no suggestion that American educators study the methods of instruction used in Mexico. If the major problem of teaching the disadvantaged Mexican-American is one of culture identity and language, it would appear that the problem might be readily solved by the recruitment and training of teachers from the Mexican-American culture base who would be bilingual, a more practical solution than the recruitment of English speaking teachers with a knowledge of Spanish.

The literature on the Mexican-American indicates that very little research has resulted from specific intervention or teaching programs. What is available is a description of the characteristics of the population, with generalized applications to teaching from other disadvantaged groups.

Americans Indians. The American Indian population presents the usual characteristics of poverty groups--low income, high unemployment rate, low level of schooling, high dropout rate, high birth rate, low level of life expectancy, and higher incidence of disease (Bass, 1967).

Public schools have gradually assumed the education of Indian children. In 1966, 61 percent were in public, 33 percent in Bureau of Indian Affairs, and 6 percent in church-mission schools (Smith, 1968). Public school attendance has not, however, been accompanied by increased educational achievement (Haubrich, 1968).

For the past forty years, Indian educational achievement has lagged behind white achievement (Berry, 1968; Harkins, 1968). The achievement gap increases with time spent in school (Coombs, 1958; Berry, 1968; Smith, 1968), especially in reading and other verbal measurements (Coombs, 1958; Townsend, 1963; Silvanoli, 1968). Differences are less in arithmetic and spelling (Coombs, 1958; Silvanoli, 1968).

High school Indian dropout rates are high. Selinger (1968) found rates of from 29 percent in Oregon to 58 percent in South Dakota; Owen and Bass (1969) found a rate of 39 percent among Southwestern Indians; in 1959 the B I A estimated the dropout rate at 60 percent.

Owens and Bass (1969) reported no difference in dropout rate by sex; Selinger (1968) reported higher female than male rates, a finding consistent with role expectancy. Education for Indians provides a few opportunities to develop marketable skills (Owen and Bass, 1968).

Of Indian students who graduate, a high number continue beyond high school, 42 percent according to a 1959 B.I.A. report and 72 percent according to Selinger (1968). There are high drop-out rates in academic programs; more complete vocational-technical programs. Thirty-two percent of Indians in college were on probation in the period 1958-1962 compared to two percent of the white students (Smith, 1968).

Follow-up studies of Indian students present a dismal picture. Most of those who received a post-high school education were unemployed or underemployed (Berry, 1968); few entered the white collar ranks and were able to work in an urban environment (Woods and Harkins, 1968). Six years after high school graduation, only about half were employed. Of those, the majority were in low pay, non-permanent jobs, and three-fifths were living on or near a reservation. (Selinger, 1968).

New experimental programs planned to overcome past educational deficiencies are too new to measure their effectiveness.

Implications for Social Studies

The literature on the sociological and psychological characteristics of the disadvantaged does not have explicit implications for the social studies. This results from two facts: (1) The social studies is not a clearly defined field; it embraces such diverse approaches as human relations training and value judgments as well as conventional subject matter; (2) Educational interpretations are dependent not on isolated studies, but on general philosophical premises that are seldom made evident. These basic differences tend to be obscured by the American tendency toward eclecticism rather than logical clarity. However, Bereiteian and Piagtian approaches are irreconcilable--the former is a teaching model and the second is a readiness model, albeit expressed in a cognitive idiom. In the following interpretation, no attempt will be made to present a consistent set of implications: to do so would require the statement of a consistent philosophy and psychology of education. The following, therefore, are presented merely as suggestions.

Diversity of the Disadvantaged. Disadvantaged learners share in common the culture of poverty. School compensatory efforts, therefore, will always be somewhat limited in their impact because jobs, income, housing, food, recreation and other social aspects impinge upon the child as he grows and learns. Any comprehensive program at educational remediation should take into account the improvement of the total environment setting. When funds are only made available for school compensatory efforts, the funds should be utilized specifically for the solution of the school task of improvement: instruction.

There are large categories of minority groups--Indian, Mexican-American, and Negro--that require special treatment. The Indian has the problem of discrimination, not unlike that of the Negro, as well as the problems of culture conflict and English-language handicaps. The reservation syndrome, perpetuated through the Bureau of Indian Affairs, is probably as much a deterrent as the low poverty level. The Mexican-Americans have the problem of a dual language, and the Negro the problem of caste and color. Some differences in approaches, therefore, must be made for these various groups.

The rural poor are among the most disadvantaged in the country. Emphasis on the urban disadvantaged has tended to obscure this fact. While the dispersed nature of rural society appears to limit the intensity of the problem, the rural poor continue to migrate to the cities. Consequently, neglect of the rural disadvantaged child means that he will probably continue his existence as a disadvantaged adult in the city.

Social Class and Life Chances. The relationship of poverty to all life chances and these life chances to education indicate that attempts to improve educational achievement, separate from general social improvement, may treat symptoms rather than the causes of learning disability. This is one implication of the Coleman report. On the other hand, the schools have no general mandate and are not financed at a level to undertake general social amelioration. Until such financing is made available, the school will necessarily have to concentrate on its own clients within the school day. This means that much more careful attention needs to be given to the instructional process, rather than using the environmental context to explain why the schools fail to teach disadvantaged children.

The Family and Rearing. Since the poor family gives little practical support to school values, it is necessary for the school to provide the instructional context in which children can perform under school supervision. This may require an extension of the school day, with additional school workers to provide a greater variety of activities and study supervision. Where funds are available to support such a program of parent involvement as home teachers, there appear to be positive results. Most programs that merely talk about parent or community involvement, without the provision of money and personnel to bring about their involvement, are usually ineffective. Probably the most neglected area in the United States is that of adult educational literacy. Since there is a direct relation between educational level of parent and educational level attained by students, one way to achieve the latter objective is to involve the parents in educational programs. Each school should probably operate in two shifts--one for the children in the day and a second for the parents at night.

Home Values and Education. The poor have a more practical concern with education than do the middle class--the former see it as a means of getting ahead and improving themselves financially. It is probable that this emphasis ought to be more reflected in the curriculum than at present. This practical emphasis on education, however, is not only characteristic of the poor. While there are adults who participate in continuing education as an avocation, the largest class--upper as well as lower--are those who see schooling as a means of additional financial reward. The primary and intermediate social studies program--or language arts, for that matter--might well include more case studies of different children in lower class conditions throughout the world making good through schooling.

Motivation and School Success. The lack of success in school, and the frustration that comes from this lack of success, is a matter of urgent concern. There is a tendency to place low motivation in the family and cultural context. This is an excuse-device for the school. Parents want their children to succeed in school, and young children start out to school with the idea that this is the place to learn to read and write. Since success itself breeds a further desire to succeed, it is important that the beginning school learners achieve success. This has often been interpreted to mean reducing the task for the disadvantaged child, rather than restruction of the methodology to assure more positive learning results. A teaching, rather than clinical approach, to motivation requires more emphasis upon appropriate teaching methodology. Success in learning appears to reinforce other school success.

Self-Concept. More recent research appears to bring into question many of the interpretations of negative self-concept held by the disadvantaged child. The school may contribute far more to the development of his negative impressions, particularly when teachers covertly discriminate, often unconsciously, against the poor child. As with motivation and school success, positive self-concept appears to result from those kinds of learning situations in which the child builds up a repertory of success, not by reducing the task but by changing methodologies to provide for a greater level of success.

Language and Social Class. Achievement in the school context requires an increase in the acquisition of the formal language of abstract conceptualization and discourse. This language can be acquired by the disadvantaged child, but it has to be taught explicitly rather than left to chance, as in the present curriculum. Direct teaching for language mastery, however, appears to require a shift from the present dominant emphasis on inquiry in social studies to more structured types of learning, in which concepts are explicitly taught. The present emphasis on inquiry in social studies is not new--it is at least as old as the Progressive movement. However, this emphasis has not produced tangible research evidence of alleged contribution to more effective or critical thinking. Applied to the disadvantaged, it may be a source of continued weakness in their achievement. Irrespective of the teaching mode used, more attention needs to be given to the acquisition and use of formal language in the school. The monosylabic type of response that is accepted for answers to questions and for discussion may contribute to poor language habits. Vocabulary development and expanded vocabulary usage is a prerequisite to an increase in both the receptive and expressive levels of conceptualization, whether open or structured teaching is employed.

Intelligence and Culture-Fair Testing. Intelligence test scores should not be used to place children, especially young children, in groups. The emphasis should be upon the determination of specific learning tasks, development of materials and methods appropriate to achieve those learning tasks, and the use of task-criteria measures of performance. Such an approach to performance measurement would have the double advantage of assisting teachers to clarify their learning goals and to evaluate the instructional system rather than merely the achievement of the pupil. Intelligence tests, nevertheless, are valid general tests of the type of abstract intellectual operations related to school learning. Attempts to substitute other measures either do not validly relate to school performance or are no more free of cultural bias than conventional tests. The high correlation between IQ and social studies achievement reflects the fact that both are highly verbal. Social studies tests are verbal tests, and general social studies achievement correlates very highly with vocabulary skills.

Reading. Achievement in the social studies is highly correlated with reading level; reading level is highly predictive of performance level in the social studies, as in other subjects. For the disadvantaged, the social studies might be approached as a reading-language lesson. An analysis of the procedures and questions used in teaching reading for comprehension indicates no difference in teaching the social studies. Any social studies material must be read for comprehension, if it is to be meaningful. Since the problem of reading improvement is critical to the improvement of teaching the disadvantaged, the social studies teacher needs to give more attention to using social studies materials for improving the teaching of reading.

Nature, Nurture, and Ethnicity. Education is concerned with environmental manipulation. There is no concrete evidence as to genetic origins of differential performance, since genetic potential and culture are inextricably intertwined. The school, therefore, will necessarily continue to strive to achieve the maximum amount of environmental stimulation. However, prenatal and early childhood deficiencies indicate the importance of not relying solely on the school for environmental manipulation. The sense of frustration with school programs results, in part, from the tendency to expect more of the schools than they can reasonably produce.

Conclusions. The sociological and psychological literature dealing with the disadvantaged does not offer many practical suggestions for teaching. It is one thing to know that children live in overcrowded, noisy homes; it is another thing to convert this information into any significance for teaching and learning. The result is that the descriptive literature on the disadvantaged probably has served more to excuse bad teaching than to stimulate good teaching.

Better teaching for the disadvantaged, however, seems to imply much more intensively programmed and structured approaches than currently fashionable, especially in the social studies. This means such clear and practical measures as short, specific learning tasks rather than global learning tasks; specification of methods to achieve the learning task rather than depending on student intuition and improvisation; clarity and consistency in assigning learning tasks, both with respect to the task and the method; continued and sustained emphasis on language use and development, especially increase of conceptual power through vocabulary; frequent repetition, review, and drill to maintain connections between the learning tasks; structuring of learning tasks to provide opportunities for categorization and the development of ideas of relationships and processes; and deemphasis on premissive atmosphere and consistent emphasis on good classroom behavior and achievement of the school tasks. At the same time, the student should be involved; to improve language he must use the language, to express himself, he must be required to use the new concepts, both in speech and in writing.

The sociological and psychological background suggests, according to Riessman, a more old-style, highly structured program combined with some elements of progressive emphasis such as on student involvement and motivation. The psychological constructs of Ausubel (receptive learning), Jensen (associative learning), and Bereiter (direct verbal), appear to undergird this approach to teaching the social studies.

Sociological and psychological characteristics of the disadvantaged should not be disregarded in the development of more effective social studies programs for the disadvantaged. The definition of "effective" will continue to reflect the various backgrounds and philosophical assumptions that social studies specialists bring to their study of the disadvantaged. However, greater specificity in the psychological and sociological assumptions undergirding work with the disadvantaged is required. In making any interpretation of the implications of psychological and sociological studies for teaching the disadvantaged, it is impossible for the interpreter to disassociate himself from his own theoretical constructs and perception of pupil needs.

The real issue is not, therefore, structured versus unstructured learning for the disadvantaged, but an increase in the school product for the disadvantaged, both in terms of quality and quantity. The disadvantaged child must be helped to perform at a higher knowledge and skill level and must be retained in school longer. Performance at higher scholastic levels serves a double function. It increases the chance of individual success in a literate, technical society and adds to the capital level of the social manpower pool.

Chapter Six

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

General Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions about Curriculum

Conclusions about Instruction

Conclusions about Professional Development

Recommendations for Primary Targeted Audience

Recommendations for Other Targeted Audiences

Recommendations for Dissemination by the Study Staff

Recommendations for Dissemination by Others

Recommendations for Further Research and Development

General Conclusions

The social studies continue to lag in attention to the disadvantaged. Disappointingly little pertinent data have been reported by most of the social studies projects in curriculum development, materials production, research, experimental school programs, and teacher training. While the field of social studies has blossomed with innovations during the 1960's, few of them have aimed toward or otherwise had anything to do with the disadvantaged.

Despite a general lag in research and development of social studies for or about the disadvantaged, some noteworthy projects have reported important pertinent data. Reports from those projects constitute a data bank from which the findings of this Study have been drawn. Interestingly, fewer than half of those projects were conducted by persons whose basic or main field is social studies. Most of the pertinent projects were initiated and directed by persons outside the field. The Study Staff also believes that there are quite a number of additional projects that did not gather data or did not submit reports or whose reports are not available to others.

Regretably only part of the potentially available data sought in this Study were actually obtainable. Most of the hundreds of pertinent, identifiable (by listing in a variety of sources) projects apparently did not submit data-bearing reports that are now available. This is particularly true of early NDEA, ESEA, and some other projects. Of those now available reports that were submitted, only a minority include any more than "soft" data. Of the projects reporting data, many contained no more than general statements about the "feeling" of project personnel or other persons that a project had favorable results and should be repeated (or, indeed, expanded). On the whole, it seems that there have been relatively few projects concerning social studies for or about the disadvantaged; of those projects, few gathered data; of those projects, few reported in ways that make data available to others who seek it; of those projects, few revealed data other than impressions of leaders or participants; and it is only the remainder of the projects that present pertinent tangible, utilizable, and available findings.

Clearly the reported research and development to date deal a great more with social studies for disadvantaged students than they do with social studies about the disadvantaged. What has been reported concentrates in large measure on content in history that is presented in textbooks. While a realistic view would scarcely overlook this important subject and important material, they constitute at best only a portion of what is taught and an even smaller part of what could be taught about the disadvantaged. It would be unjustified here to go beyond the present Study and become involved in the issues of (1) textbooks versus other instructional materials, and of (2) history versus other social studies. Perhaps it is sufficient to recognize two distinctive and pertinent trends in social studies of the 1960's: (1) textbooks declining relatively in the proportion of social studies content that students get from them while other media are coming to be more and more widely used; and (2) history declining relatively as more and more attention is being given other areas of the social studies.

Also definitely evident in the reported research is greater concern with Negroes than with other groups of disadvantaged. There are, of course, some regional variations as well as differing emphases in diverse individual projects. But social studies about the disadvantaged has mostly, in the country as a whole, focused on Black Studies and Negro or Afro-American history. Other ethnic minorities--such as Hispanic Americans, American Indians, and Puerto Ricans--have received slight attention thus far in new or revised social studies programs, textbooks, and other curriculum input. In social studies projects for the disadvantaged, too, Negroes are involved more often than any other ethnic minority and, indeed, than all other ethnic minorities together. This is not to argue against improved social studies for and about Negroes. It is to recognize that American society includes several ethnic minorities of which Negroes are the largest minority, lately the most vocal in calling for increased educational opportunity, and possibly the most successful in gaining better if still inadequate treatment in schools. The point is that social studies which faithfully reflects a multicultural and pluralistic American society needs to deal with a variety of ethnic--as well as economic, social class, relious, political, and other minorities. To do any less would be at best misleading and at worst fraudulent and harmful to both the schools and the society they serve.

While the findings of projects that reported are valuable, they also reflect some limitations and even dangers. The total evidence now available is too diverse and non-comparable. The various studies that reveal those findings do not fit together in a meaningful mosaic so much as they fill in here and there parts of a **picture** that needs to be completed if it is to provide needed perspective on social studies and the disadvantaged. It may even be that, for social and perhaps other education of the disadvantaged, the data often gathered are not the most pertinent.

It is perhaps naive to question either the schools or the researchers about their apparent preoccupation with the traditional measures of the qualities traditionally associated with schooling that has traditionally been white, middle-class oriented. Such highly interrelated characteristics as reading, vocabular, or verbal achievement plus computational or other quantitative reasoning skills serve as measures of general scholastic ability, or "intelligence" by popular use or misuse. Yet the question seems not to have been seriously and fully faced as to whether these indicators are more symptoms than fundamental factors. If the answer could be yes to any significant degree, then schooling may be yet unpointed toward dealing with the elements of learning that those symptoms merely reflect.

Perhaps a start has been made in a profitable direction through an affective approach: improve the self-image of the disadvantaged. That individual's feelings of self-respect, confidence, ethnic pride, and morale can be bolstered in schools has at least an immediate result that has been demonstrated. But the evidence does not at this time converge toward a clearly identified solution. As well as the unknown of long-range effects, some recent evidence identifies stronger self-image among some disadvantaged than among the "advantaged," both groups so identified on other than affective bases. At least equally troublesome is the persistent but uncritical belief that contact with or study or another ethnic group results in increased tolerance or empathy. While this holds true for students (or adults) favorably predisposed, and perhaps for many neutral ones, it sometimes "backfires" with those prejudiced against a minority. Exposure may make them more so.

Particularly those project leaders who examine reports, or the abstracts appended here, may get some impression that almost anything works in social studies for or about the disadvantaged. And it is evident that a considerable variety of approaches, materials, programs, and projects do have some positive effects. But this may overlook some of the basic limitations in what has been discovered to work in certain circumstances. The fact that a number of things have worked under given, but not always adequately described, conditions does not necessarily make them desirable, or even applicable, to other conditions.

And even these factors do not include what ultimately may become a necessity: a comparative analysis of particular approaches in particular settings. In refined form this would likely consist of a relative cost-benefit analysis. At the present stage of development in social studies, this is quite difficult if not impractical to attain. A basic problem and barrier is that desirable outcomes, output, or products of social studies usually have not been identified specifically and tangible enough to permit such a realistic analysis. Measures of attainment, while not entirely unavailable, also need refinement. But what seems most needed at present is development of product specifications. Decision makers on curriculum can arrive at these as a matter of policy. Complete concensus is not likely. Decision makers might best, then, specify alternative products and lead in developing clear, definite statements of varying objectives. In relation to these, evaluation can be made of some of the differing approaches.

None of this discussion should be interpreted to evade the urgent need to face up to improving social studies for and about the disadvantaged. The current situation, both social and educational, demand that such a forthright confrontation occur. Schools should, and it is increasingly clear must, not be content to do either nothing or merely what has been done elsewhere. Still, a costly, destructive revolution in social studies is not essential to improvement. Schools can, with both imagination and practicality, work within their own setting with its framework and basic approach.

Known limits on time and other available resources should imply to any school system, school, supervisor, or teacher that it would be indiscriminate or worse to try instituting a great variety of changes in a short period of time. The point is to encourage selectivity in identifying what, it is judged, should be attempted and, further, to encourage thoroughness in such attempts. Major changes might better be tried on a limited scale with adequate support and careful study of the results rather than school-wide or system-wide without needed preparation, resources, or evaluation.

When a situation is found unsatisfactory or demands for change appear, Americans like other humans tend to look for scapegoats. Already critics in and of social studies have begun to hurl charges at the ones they blame. So far as this Study throws light on who is responsible, no group involved appears blameless. Most researchers in education, and especially in social studies, have chosed to concentrate on less complex and controversial areas of study. The same may be said of leaders in curriculum development in social studies. College professors in social studies education have remained mostly preoccupied with other interests and have reported almost no data on college training of social studies teachers with regard to the disadvantaged. Social studies supervisors and curriculum coordinators have found little time to deal with this aspect of social studies. General curriculum directors and supervisors and school administrators have continued to be diverted into a broader range of official responsibilities; their efforts on education of the disadvantaged have related to more than the school's instructional program and, when the curriculum was involved, more to traditionally basic study skills. School board members, officially representing the public, have with school administrators been concerned with diverse policy and implementation aspects of school desegregation not often involving curriculum and instruction. The public itself and through its representatives has often been content itself and through its representatives has often been content to consider the social studies less than consequential to its children's schooling and best treated by continuing the "safe" and mostly uncontroversial traditional offerings. Social studies teachers have variously, but mostly by omission, reacted to the disadvantaged insofar as analyzing and reporting attempts to improve instruction are concerned. In general, then, the realm of social studies and the disadvantaged has been an area of considerable neglect by those who most directly engaged in or who affect decision making regarding the social studies.

Despite limitations, difficulties, dangers, and seeming barriers, progress is being made in social studies for and about disadvantaged. Not only are steps being taken, but they are sometimes evaluated carefully and reported for the benefit of participants and others. While the pessimist can find in this Study plenty of omissions reflecting what has not been done, the optimist can take heart from the tangible record of increasing research and development concerning social studies and the disadvantaged. Specific indications of progress follow in a summary of the Study's findings on curriculum, instruction, and professional development. The remainder of this chapter presents recommendations for further action that needs to be taken.

Conclusions on Curriculum

1. Both history and other social sciences furnish appropriate subject matter for and about disadvantaged. For disadvantaged students, content is more learnable when at an appropriate level of comprehension, when specific in nature and limited in scope, when dealt with in depth, and when it has the flavor of "here and now" or "you are there."

2. Either distinctive or combined subjects including combinations beyond as well as within social studies, may be effective in teaching the disadvantaged. Relatively difficult concepts, from a discipline or interdisciplinary, may be learned by disadvantaged students if the teacher, instructional materials, and approach are suitable.

3. Newly emphasized and apparently successful social studies content for and about disadvantaged includes chiefly elements of law, political science, culture, and social issues (especially civil rights).

4. Teaching about the student's ethnic groups predictably results

in more favorable attitudes toward it. Results vary among different localities and ethnic groups. The disadvantaged sometimes feel more negatively toward others than others do toward them.

5. Content about disadvantaged groups needs to be presented to others groups "soft-sell" rather than "hard-sell" if more favorable attitudes towards the disadvantaged are to result. Conflict and confrontation materials should be used judiciously.

6. Results of teaching about other (than students' own) ethnic groups vary among different instructional situations and approaches, localities, and ethnic groups. Each situation needs careful appraisal as a basis for developing a desirable curriculum.

7. "One-shot" approaches are generally inferior to a curriculum that provides for recurrent ethnic group study in several grades.

Conclusions about Instruction

1. Either inductive or deductive strategies (or methods) can be used successfully in teaching the disadvantaged. Emphasis in research and development during the past few years has been on inductive approaches stressing open-ended questioning, discovery from first-hand sources of information, and skills of critical or reflective thinking. Learning of "pat" or fixed answers is discouraged. But carefully structured and presented material can be learned by students from culturally limited backgrounds.

2. Multiactivity approaches have clearly more successful results than one or two learning activities. Overt activity and interaction among students, and with the teacher, seem necessary ingredients of such instruction. Practically all reported approaches include discussion activities.

3. Multimedia facilitate more learning than do one or two types of material. Any particular learning resource seems to need completing by use of other types as well.

4. Textbooks are apparently less effective than tradebooks in achievement of both knowledge and attitude change both by disadvantaged students and, for others, about the disadvantaged.

5. Some simulation (decision-making games) have been successfully used with disadvantaged students. Results, while apparently promising, are based on limited experimentation.

6. The type of material used seems to influence learning less than does the specific content of whatever media are employed.

7. School organization appears unrelated to students' learning in social studies except as it involves grouping of students.

Especially for disadvantaged learners, greater knowledge and higher self-concept result from placement in racially mixed classes.

Conclusions about Professional Development

1. Teachers vary widely in success in teaching social studies for or about the disadvantaged. Insufficient evidence is available to identify differences in basic characteristics of successful and unsuccessful teachers.

2. There is some indication that teachers' attitudes toward the disadvantaged influences their success in teaching them and in teaching about disadvantaged groups. But an incompletely known variety of other factors also affect their students' learning in these situations. At least sometimes pertinent teachers' opinions appear more based on the specific situation than on general values or basic beliefs.

3. Most project leaders and experimental teachers agree that a distinctive amount of teacher training is desirable in introducing new social studies materials, approaches, methods, or curriculum content for or about the disadvantaged. No generally preferable form, type, or extent of training has been revealed. Often, however, those who were involved feel that more training should have been provided. But some projects have secured results without much if any training of teachers in a group.

4. Practically no research and development projects, involving pre-service teacher training in social studies for or about the disadvantaged, have reported data regarding their programs.

5. Participation by teachers in social studies curriculum development for or about disadvantaged is favorably regarded by most of those who have participated. It is sometimes formally, and in any case can be, also a form of in-service training. Most successful among the projects included teacher-developed curriculum were those that lasted long enough for tryout and revision, and that utilized consultant service.

6. Less extensive teacher participation characterized a number of projects with their curriculum already planned but involving teachers in instructional planning with specific time allocated for it. Teacher attitudes were favorable, but the effects on their students' learning are not relatable on the basis of data reported.

Recommendations for Primary Targeted Audience

The following major recommendations are suggested particularly to the Study's primary Targeted Audience: state and local school system social studies supervisors, curriculum directors, coordinators, specialists, or consultants (as they are variously titled). Such recommendations may be considered for selection of the appropriate ones variously applicable to a particular school system, community, individual school, supervisory situations, and specific teachers or subjects or grade levels.

1. The social studies curriculum should be revised to include more specific attention to various ethnic groups that compose and have contributed to multicultural, pluralistic American society and world civilization. Such attention should be balanced among ethnic groups and the ethnic among distinctive elements and aspects of human society.

2. Full effort needs to be made to provide teachers and students a range of instructional media that faithfully reflect the ethnic as well as other elements of society. Supervisors should strengthen requests and should encourage pressures for an adequate supply of instructional materials.

3. Curriculum revision should emphasize voluntary utilization by schools and teachers of the new approaches, content, or materials. "Soft-sell" is preferable to "hard-sell" among teachers as well as students. Any particular approach or specific content or material is apt to work considerably less well with some teachers than with others. Curriculum guides should suggest and stimulate rather than dictate; alternative means should be indicated.

4. Social studies about the disadvantaged should be planned for more than a single grade or course at each of elementary and secondary school levels. The emphases and approaches at each level should be reinforcing or otherwise complementary. Particularly recurrent attention is needed to attitudinal objectives.

5. Distinct effort should be made to develop or select specific, tangible specification of various desirable outcomes of social studies. And corresponding statements of definite objectives should be spelled out.

6. Distinct efforts should be made to secure reasonably full evaluation of the results of both present and innovative approaches, programs, and materials. Evaluation should be based on more than opinions of participants.

7. Teacher participation in curriculum revision and selection of instructional materials should be arranged. Every teacher in the social studies offerings involved may be invited to participate at the school level. In a local school system representatives should be involved from each school; at the state level, each area of the state should be represented; in both, representatives of diverse ethnic and other groups should be included.

8. In-service training of social studies teachers should include specific attention, perhaps at various times and for differing

groups, to social studies for and about the disadvantaged. Competent and helpful consultants should be utilized. Teachers should be encouraged to participate. The form and type of training are less important than its content, utility, and desirably considerable extent.

9. The cooperation and support of school officials, general supervisors or curriculum or instructional program directors, and preferably of at least some student groups and adult citizen groups are desirable and sometimes necessary for extensive curriculum change in a controversial area. Social studies supervisors should seek to solicit and stimulate needed facilitation of desired changes.

Recommendations for Other Targeted Audiences

The following recommendations are aimed at the secondary target audiences of this Study: general curriculum directors or supervisors, school administrators and board members, and curriculum consultants, plus a key group previously undesignated but crucial to the adequate preparation of teachers for their main responsibilities. The diversity of these secondary target audiences, both within and among the groups, limit the appropriateness of specific suggestions. These recommendations indicate desirable general lines of responsibility and contribution for each of the groups named.

1. Facilitation and other support, preferably coordinated, is needed from policy-making and resource-allocating officials and groups in efforts to improve social studies for and about the disadvantaged. School officials should channel their policies and support through social studies supervisors, or if none through other appropriate school personnel, who have continuing responsibility for the full social studies programs in the schools.

2. School administrators and board members should recognize the widespread neglect of social studies in terms of substantial support of needed instructional materials, appropriately trained teachers, curriculum development, and teacher-training programs. The improvement of social studies as respects the disadvantaged requires unusual effort because of the long general neglect of the field and because of its special responsibilities to teach about as well as to the disadvantaged.

3. Support should be given especially to those plans for improvement that involve tryout on a limited scale but with adequate resources devoted to the effort. "Window-dressing" changes are less beneficial, in the long run, than carefully planned changes with results measured and reported.

4. School administrators, board, members, and general curriculum

directors should give special recognition to the tendencies for social studies content to become outdated and the basic nature of the field as involves controversy. Thus needed supportive resources include building public understanding that the public schools need to reflect and contribute to a multicultural, pluralistic society.

5. General curriculum directors should assume special responsibility for social studies and the disadvantaged in their school systems where there is no social studies supervisor. In those systems with one or more social studies specialists, the general curriculum director may serve as both a catalyst for social studies improvement, when needed, and a coordinator between the social studies and other areas of the curriculum.

6. Social studies consultants to school systems should recognize the great divergence within schools among individual students, teachers, schools, communities, and ethnic and other groups in American society. The contributions of consultants can be most valuable when they recommend, or simply identify, alternative approaches that appear relatable to the characteristics of particular school situations. Teachers and supervisors need acquaintance with a variety of directions, approaches, or means from which they can select particular ones to apply to their situations. It is very helpful to identify limitations, including unknowns, of particular approaches as well as their demonstrated and potential advantages. When possible, consulting should be arranged on a continuing basis over a significant length of time that provides a consultant both opportunity and responsibility to revise his approach in terms of effects or lack of them.

7. College personnel involved in social studies teacher education should meet the need for fuller attention to the disadvantaged in their regular pre-service and advanced study programs as well as through special offerings--on and off campus--in conferences, workshops, institutes, clinics, and other means. The greater glamor, and often financial rewards, of speechmaking and curriculum consulting should not interfere with an urgently needed effort to improve basic programs in social studies education in relation to the disadvantaged. In this effort, too, prospective and experienced teachers should be provided with some alternatives and not merely a single set of correct answers. Teacher educators must be concerned with realities of diverse teaching situations if they are to contribute effectively to improving social studies for and about the disadvantaged.

Recommendations for Dissemination by the Study Staff

To be effective, this as any other Study must be felt; to be felt, it must become known, its results must be disseminated. The Study Staff has undertaken, or proposes to undertake, certain dissemination activities. With available resources, some additional ones will be undertaken. Two of the proposed specific activities have been completed. The others are in various stages of planning or contemplation. Some of these proposed are, by their nature, beyond the province of the Study Staff to proceed with unless and until approval or other support is forthcoming. Meanwhile the Staff members plan to proceed with dissemination as rapidly as is possible under terms of the grant agency.

1. Study Staff members plan to prepare varying articles for different educational journals that provide channels to the Targeted Audiences. Each of these articles will be focused on aspects of the Study that relate most directly to the Targeted Audiences. Articles will be submitted to 15 to 18 national journals. Publication of major or modified excerpts from the Study will also be sought from educational organizations and publishers.

2. The Study Staff plan to utilize and publicize findings of the Study through their regular and special courses in social studies education for pre-service and experienced teachers and other school personnel. Further, the Staff will be available to disseminate the Study through addresses to educational groups, consultation with school personnel, and other contacts through such national, regional, and state professional associations as will facilitate these efforts.

3. Preliminary publicizing of the Study to the primary Targeted Audience was initiated at the November, 1969, annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. A one-page handout and a slide exhibit headlining the purposes and nature of the Study was included in the official convention exhibits. That handout was also distributed at sessions of the local social studies supervisors. The Study Director overviewed the Study at a session of the Council of State Social Studies Specialists, meeting in conjuction with NCSS. In none of these activities were specific Study findings prematurely reported.

4. Dissemination was furthered by planned participation of the Study Staff at the forthcoming 1970 winter conference of the Georgia Council for the Social Sciences, supported as an NCSS Area Conference (co-sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies) for a five-state area in the Southeast. Chief clientele are elementary and secondary school teachers, state and local social studies supervisors, and college faculty in social studies education in this area.

5. Continuing funding of the Study, for purposes of more broadly disseminating it, has been proposed to the grant agency. The chief activities comtemplated for this follow-up phase of the present Study are:

(a) A week-long work committee at the annual Southern States Work Conference, composed of representatives of state departments of education and state education associations together with selected social studies leaders in the Southeast. This conference would aim to broaden the Target Audience informed and stimulated regarding applications of the Study, and to produce materials that will aid state and local school systems in implementing the Study.

(b) Co-sponsorship of a 1970 annual late-summer conference of the Council of State Social Studies Specialists to formulate plans for taking official steps during 1970-1971 to implement the Study. Preliminary contacts with officers of CSSSS have indicated general receptivity to this proposal.

(c) A series of 24 Urban Area Conferences on Social Studies and the Disadvantaged, to be held during the fall of 1970 in each major urban area of the U.S. A team of representatives from each of five outlying and five local school systems would be invited to meet with two representatives of the Study Staff to explore ways of implementing the Study locally and in coordinated fashion. These conferences would conclude, by December, 1970, Phase II of the Study.

Recommendations for Dissemination by Others

A number of types and lines of dissemination are recommended here. While the Study Staff may be able to contribute directly to some of those recommended, other appropriate persons may also quite properly and desirably undertake them. And some of these activities are recommended for accomplishment by designated groups or organizations.

1. The grant agency, the U.S. Office of Education, is requested to provide such dissemination as it can of this Study by means of announcement, abstracts, excerpts, duplicating, or rewrites through ERIC, CIJE, PREP, and other OE communication media. Possibly some other federal agencies, too, may provide channels for dissemination.

2. The Director of Publications, National Council for the Social Studies (NEA) has already contacted the Study Staff with a view to possible publication Report excerpts or rewrites for dissemination through NCSS publications. The report will be sent to NCSS at an appropriate time.

3. Authors of standard books on social studies curriculum and instruction will be sent copies of the Report at an appropriate time. It is hoped that they will incorporate pertinent findings into their works.

4. A proposal for one or more Study Staff will be made to appear on the program at the next annual meeting of the College and

University Faculty, an affiliate of the National Council for the Social Studies. It is hoped to stimulate more, and more appropriate, efforts in teacher training in social studies.

5. Request will be made for one or more of the Study Staff to appear on the program of the annual spring meeting of the Social Science Education Consortium, a group of about 150 key persons in the nation in the field of social science education.

6. Through nationally widespread contacts that the Study Staff have collectively, encouragement and facilitation will be given Targeted Audiences, and organizations that provide avenues to them, to become acquainted with and to utilize as they deem best the Study's findings.

Recommendations for Further Research and Development

At first glance the lines of possible further research and development appear strikingly unlimited in both scope and extent. But some areas of needed research and development do seem, as a matter of judgment, more urgent or more basically important than do others. With this though, the following recommendations are offered in the hope of contributing to a channeling of research and development in this area into the more profitable areas of investigation.

1. While research and development on social studies for disadvantaged needs considerably greater work, social studies about the disadvantaged needs relatively even more attention. Researchers are therefore invited to consider especially the latter area.

2. Although open, unstructured, or inquiry approaches to social studies relative to the disadvantaged need continuing investigation, more deductive or didactic approaches have been relatively neglected. Special effort should be devoted to exploring values and limitations of the latter and to developing complementary relationships between the two in social studies for and about the disadvantaged.

3. More projects need to gather, and of those that gather more need to report, data that help to assess the effects of utilizing the experimental program, materials, or other element. Far too many attempts to improve social studies regarding the disadvantaged have gone unevaluated.

4. Where practicable, control groups of teachers and/or students following established (and thus control) programs should be included in evaluation. This aids the ascertaining of relative merits of alternative practices. Such experimentation calls for careful research design and preferably evaluation of more than one type of product or result.

5. More replication is needed in individual studies and in other researchers' replication of studies that have been done. The indiscriminate, uncritical tendency to engage in or accept results of "one-shot" research studies and development projects should be avoided wherever possible. Researchers need to impress on those who provide the resources to make their work possible that tremendous if not overwhelming limitations are inherent in one-time studies. The very rare but useful replication studies that have been reported illustrate considerable advantage of this approach.

6. Research is particularly needed on social studies teacher education regarding the disadvantaged. The location of a majority of active researchers in the field in colleges should facilitate their access to data close at hand. Long-range solutions to problems involving social studies and the disadvantaged clearly require improved pre-service and later training of teachers.

APPENDIXES

A - Recommended Sites for Targeted Audience Contacts

B - Abstracts of Data Reports

C - Bibliography of References from Psychology and Sociology

D - How the Study Was Done: the Process of Synthesizing Research

RECOMMENDED SITES FOR TARGETED AUDIENCE CONTACTS

The sites reported in the following pages are commended as possible appropriate sources for visitation or communication by targeted audience members who desire contact with ongoing projects. All of these projects meet the following criteria:

(1) They show promise of continuance into the foreseeable future, at least through 1970 and most of them for much longer.

(2) They include specific attention to social studies for or about the disadvantaged. While no project is devoted wholly to this concern, the sites variously include this interest in their programs.

(3) They are data-based, data-collecting, or data-reporting projects. That is, they are research and development sites that are committed to some use of evaluation involving tangible evidence. This feature distinguished them from a much larger number of programs, centers, projects, "experiments," and other activities that involve social studies and the disadvantaged but that limit reported evaluation to cited impressions of participants. Note, however, that not all of the selected sites have yet reported "hard" data; thus some are not included in the Study's abstracts of research and development reports.

(4) They offer such services as site tours, information handouts, demonstrations, answers to queries, sample materials for teachers or students, and observation of curriculum or instructional materials development or teacher training.

The appropriateness and desirability of a given site for contact by particular targeted audience members is a matter for their determination. The Study Staff learned of about 200 projects, selected and visited 24, and here report 18 sites for consideration of targeted audiences.

Authors of these site reports, based on actual visits to the projects are members of the Study Staff designated by initials at the end of each report as follows:

WGG--W. George Gaines
MLH--Michael L. Hawkins
JCM--Jonathon C. McLendon
MJR--Marion J. Rice
DOS--Donald O. Schneider
LMS--Larry M. Strickland

RECOMMENDED SITES FOR TARGETED AUDIENCE CONTACTS

African American Institute, New York, N.Y. Mr. Thomas Collins, Dir.

Ameliorative Program for Pre-School Disadvantaged Children, Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, University of Illinois, Champaign Illinois. Dr. Merle B. Karnes, dir.

Anthropology Curriculum Project, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia. Dr. M. J. Rice, dir.

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, New York, N. Y. Mr. Oscar Cohen, dir.

Center for Urban Education, New York, N.Y. Dr. Raymond Drescher, dir.

Elementary School Social Science Curriculum Project, Metropolitan St., Louis Social Studies Center, St. Louis, Missouri, Dr. Harold Berlak, dir.

Escarosa Humanities Curriculum Development Center, Pensacola, Florida. Mr. Charles V. Branch, dir.

Geography Curriculum Project, Univeristy of Georgia, Athens, Georgia. Dr. M. J. Rice, dir.

Human Dignity Program, Vallejo City Unified School District, Vallejo, California. Mr. Arthur Satterlie, dir.

Improving Attitudes via Cultural Understanding of Minorities, Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colorado. Dr. Joseph Brzenski, dir.

Intergroup Relations Program, Lincoln Filene Center, Medford, Massachusetts. Dr. John S. Gibson, dir.

Law in American Society Foundation, Chicago, Illinois, Dr. Robert Ratcliffe, dir.

Man: A Course of Study, Educational Development Center, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Peter B. Dow, dir.

Milwaukee Social Studies Program, Milwaukee Public Schools, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Mr. Arthur Rumpf, dir.

Multicultural Social Education Program, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, Austin, Texas. Dr. Dell Felder, dir.

Social Science Education Consortium, Boulder, Colorado. Dr. Irving Morrissett, dir.

South Bronx Multi-Purpose Supplementary Education Center, SOMPSEC, New York, N.Y. Mr. Joseph Matthews, dir.

Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, La Jolla, California. Dr. Wayman J. Crow, dir.

THE AFRICAN--AMERICAN INSTITUTE

Mr. H. Thomas Collins, Director, School Services Division
The African-American Institute
866 United Nations Plaza
New York, New York 10017
Type: developmental/dissemination and implementation/application

No data report issued to date. Evaluation of EPOA Summer Institutes related to teaching about Africa currently in progress and will result in "guidelines" publication for in-service programs in winter 1970-71.

Products presently available: Bibliographies, series of memos for teachers dealing with resources and teaching strategies.
Other materials available for examination in the Materials Center at the site are a variety of textbooks, other printed materials and audiovisuals.
Future publications include one dealing with African views of Africa (Spring, 1970); revised guide to institute in-service probrams in New York City and Minneapolis--St. Paul area; "critical bibliography" of widely used teaching materials on Africa (Winter 1970-71).

Services at site: Materials Center; information handouts; formal half-day program can be arranged for groups of 10-50; individual school system consultation, including consultation on curriculum design and assistance for in-service programs can be arranged if financially supported by school systems.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: The institute's focus is upon the study of Africa generally K-12, not specifically for the disadvantaged, although specific suggestions can be offered with regard to teaching disadvantaged about Africa and teaching others about Africa and Afro American heritage.
Regularly open: 9:00 a.m.--5:00 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi. Advance arrangement for visit preferred, and required for all but Media Center.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, department heads, and key teachers.

DOS

AMELIORATIVE PROGRAM FOR PRESCHOOL DISADVANTAGED CHILDREN

Dr. Merle B. Karnes, Program Director
Institute for Research on Exceptional Children
University of Illinois, 403 E. Henley St., Champaign, Illinois 16820
Type: developmental/implementation project

Reported data in: Final Report, Research and Development Program on Preschool Disadvantaged Children, USOE Bureau of Research Project No. 5-1181 (3 vols.), 1969.
Merle B. Karnes and others, "An Evaluation of Two Preschool Programs for Disadvantaged Children: A Traditional and a Highly Structured Experimental Preschool," Exceptional Children, May 1968, 667-676.
Merle B. Karnes and Audrey Hodgins, "The Effects of a Highly Structured Preschool Program on the Measured Intelligence of Culturally Disadvantaged Four-Year Old Children," Psychology in the Schools, January 1969, 89-91.
Merle B. Karnes and others, "Effects of a Highly Structured Program of Language Development on Intellectual Functioning and Psycholinguistic Development of Culturally Disadvantaged Three-Year-Olds," Journal of Special Education, Summer-Fall 1968, 405-412.
Reports reflect program's inclusion of science--social studies as one of three content areas in instructional program.

Products presently available: Materials used in program for curriculum directors, supervisors, consultants, teachers.
Products planned: Kits for instructional use, including one on social studies, with disadvantaged children. Enrichment (not basic or sequential) programed instructional materials in production process by Milton Bradley Company (social studies content in language materials).

Services at site: Live instruction on-site, ages 3-5, social studies topics of family and community.
Curriculum materials development now in refining stage; preparing lesson plans. Instructional materials development now underway. Teacher-training program (OEC-supported) operative.
Regularly open: 8:30 a.m.--1:00 p.m. daily; weekly night meetings for parents participating in program. Recommended transportation: taxi. Advance arrangement (two weeks) necessary.
Suitable for social studies and elementary curriculum directors, supervisors, school administrators and board members, consultants.

JCM

ANTHROPOLOGY CURRICULUM PROJECT

Dr. M. J. Rice, Director
University of Georgia
Margaret Hall, Milledge Ave., Athens, Georgia 30601
Type: developmental/implementation/dissemination

Data reported in unpublished doctoral dissertations at the University of Georgia:
- Greene, William W., Jr., Anthropological Teaching in the First and Fourth Grades: A Comparison of Trained and Non-Trained Teachers as Measured by Pupil Test Performance, 1966.
- Hunt, Anne Johnson, Anthropology Achievement of Normal and Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children, 1969.
- Potterfield, James E., An Analysis of Elementary School Children's Ability to Learn Anthropological Content at Grades Four, Five, and Six, 1966.
- Thomas, Georgelle, The Use of Programed Instruction for Anthropology in the Fifth Grade, 1967.

Variables measured:

cognitive: pupils' knowledge of concepts; (some) teachers' knowledge of content.

affective: pupils' attitudes toward

Products presently available (in class-size or examination sets of teacher essay, teacher manual, pupil text, pupil workbook, and pre- and post-tests for each grade):
- K--Concept of Culture: An Introductory Unit
- 1--The Concept of Culture
- 2--Development of Man and His Culture: New World Prehistory
- 3--Cultural Change: The Changing World Today
- 4--The Concept of Culture
- 5--Development of Man and His Culture: Old World Prehistory
  - Archeological Methods (programmed)
- 6--Cultural Change: How Change Takes Place
- 7--Language
  - Life Cycle
- 8 & 9--Political Anthropology: Values, Socialization, Social Control, and Law
  - Urban Community
- High School--Race, Caste and Prejudice

Services at site: information handouts; queries discussed with Director or program development assistant.
Demonstration: available only occasionally, when pilot tryout is in progress. List of schools (across the country) using material available on request.

Elements explained/discussed: curriculum development, curriculum and instructional materials and development. Project materials and data reports may be examined.
Regularly open: 8:30 a.m.--5:30 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi. Advance arrangement necessary for visit; contact the Director.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors and curriculum directors; social studies consultants.

MJR/JCM

ANTI-DEFAMATION LEAGUE OF B'NAI B'RITH

Mr. Oscar Cohen, National Director
Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith
315 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10016
Regional offices in thirty cities
Type: developmental/dissemination and implementation/application

Data Reports: Melvin M. Tumin, editor, Research Annual on Intergroup Relations - 1970, annotations and abstracts of research 1966-1970. Similar annuals published in 1966 and 1965 with briefer bulletins in 1964 and 1963. Lloyd A. Marcus, The Treatment of Minorities in Secondary School Textbooks. Impressionistic survey and report of selected texts related to selected topics and minority groups with recommendations for revision.
Unreported data, but scheduled for publication in spring, 1970: Michael Kane, Two Decades Later: The Treatment of Minorities in Social Studies Textbooks. A survey of the 45 most frequently used texts in urban-suburban areas. Subjective impression and some quantitative data.

Products presently available: Printed and audiovisual materials for sale or rent (films) on a wide range of topics relative to social studies and disadvantaged. Student materials and teacher materials.
Future publications: Intergroup relations materials to supplement K-12 social studies curriculum: (1) Mexican-American (in production), (2) American-Indian (in planning), Puerto-Rican-American (in planning).

Services at site (thirty regional offices): information handouts, catalogs, materials, (films available through five depositories--N.Y., Boston, Atlanta, Chicago, and Los Angeles), queries discussed. A.D.L., through regional offices, will provide consultative service to schools and school systems, including assistance in curriculum planning and development related to teaching for or about disadvantaged students, positive intergroup relations, and related areas.
Regularly open: Normal business hours. Recommended local transportation: Inquire locally. Advance arrangement for visit necessary, contact nearest regional office listed on next page.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors and administrators.

DOS

REGIONAL OFFICES OF ANTI-DEFAMATION LEAGUE OF B'NAI B'RITH

ALABAMA REGIONAL OFFICE, 1715 City Federal Bldg., Birmingham, Alabama 32503
CENTRAL PACIFIC REGIONAL OFFICE, 40 First Street, 4th fl., San Francisco, California 94105
CONNECTICUT REGIONAL OFFICE, 1184 Chapel St., Suite 3, New Haven, Connecticut 06511
D.C.-MARYLAND REGIONAL OFFICE, 1640 Rhode Island Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036
DALLAS REGIONAL OFFICE, 908 Praetorian Bldg., Dallas, Texas 75201
FLORIDA REGIONAL OFFICE, 907 Seybold Bldg., Miami, Florida 33132
INDIANA REGIONAL OFFICE, 108 E. Washington St., Indianapolis, Indiana 46204
LONG ISLAND REGIONAL OFFICE, 250 Mineola Blvd., Mineola, New York 11501
MICHIGAN REGIONAL OFFICE, 163 Madison Ave., Suite 120, Detroit, Michigan 48226
MIDWEST REGIONAL OFFICE, 222 West Adams St., Chicago, Illinois 60606
MINNESOTA-DAKOTAS REGIONAL OFFICE, 303 Gorham Bldg., 127 N. 7th St., Minneapolis, Minn. 55403
MISSOURI-SOUTHERN ILLINOIS REGIONAL OFFICE, 721 Olive St., Suite 1104, St. Louis, Missouri 63101
MONTREAL REGIONAL OFFICE, 1010 St. Catherine St., W. Rm 1034, Montreal 2, Que. Canada
MOUNTAIN STATES REGIONAL OFFICE, 623 Empire Bldg., Denver, Colorado 80202
NEW ENGLAND REGIONAL OFFICE, 72 Franklin St., Suite 504, Boston, Massachusetts 02110
NEW JERSEY REGIONAL OFFICE, 24 Commerce St., Suite 929-930, Newark, New Jersey 07102
NEW YORK REGIONAL OFFICE, 315 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10016
NORTH CAROLINA-VIRGINIA REGIONAL OFFICE, 700 East Main St., Richmond, Virginia 23219
OHIO-KENTUCKY REGIONAL OFFICE, 34 North High St., Suite 404, Columbus, Ohio 43205
PACIFIC NORTHWEST REGIONAL OFFICE, 602 Securities Bldg., Seattle, Washington 98101
PACIFIC SOUTHWEST REGIONAL OFFICE, 590 North Vermont Ave., Los Angeles, California 90004
PENNSYLVANIA-WEST VIRGINIA-DELAWARE REGIONAL OFFICE, 225 South 15th St., Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19102
PLAINS STATES REGIONAL OFFICE, 537 Securities Bldg., Omaha, Nebraska 68102
SOUTH CENTRAL REGIONAL OFFICE 535 Gravier St., Suite 806, New Orleans, Louisiana 70130
SOUTHEAST REGIONAL OFFICE, 805 Peachtree St., NE Suite 633, Atlanta, Georgia 30308
SOUTHWEST REGIONAL OFFICE, 3033 Fannin, Suite 101, Houston, Texas 77004
TORONTO REGIONAL OFFICE, 825 Eglinton Avenue West, Toronto 10, Ontario Canada
WESTCHESTER COUNTY REGIONAL OFFICE, 199 Main Street, Rm. 320, White Plains, N.Y. 10601
WESTERN NEW YORK STATE REGIONAL OFFICE, 604 Sidway Bldg., 775 Main St., Buffalo, N.Y. 14203
WISCONSIN-UPPER MIDWEST REGIONAL OFFICE, 623 North Second Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53203

CENTER FOR URBAN EDUCATION

Raymond Drescher, director
Center for Urban Education
105 Madison Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10016
Type: developmental/dissemination

No data report issued to date. Program evaluation based on Planning for Change (elementary) to be published in 1971.

Products presently available (but not in sufficient quantities for general distribution): Planning for Change (upper elementary urban geography program). Instructional Profiles: Social Studies (adaptable in grades 3-5); slides, audiotapes.
Other materials not generally available may be examined by site visitor.

Services at site: tour; information handouts; queries discussed with Raymond Drescher, Frank Brown, and Michael Kinsler.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: curriculum development, curriculum materials, instructional materials and development, teacher training program and materials. All materials cited above may be examined by and discussed with site visitors. A conceptual framework for social education, grades K-12, is being developed from an urban perspective.
Regularly open during the week; advance arrangements for visit necessary; recommended local transportation: taxi, subway, bus. Contact Mr. Drescher.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors and consultants.

WGG

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SOCIAL SCIENCE CURRICULUM PROJECT

Dr. Harold Berlak, Director
Washington University
Skinker at Lindell, St. Louis, Missouri 63132
Type: developmental/dissemination

Reported data in dissertations underway at Washington University:
  Jimmie Applegate, Description and Analysis of Role Play as a Student Activity in an Elementary Classroom
  Elliott Seif, An Analysis of Critical Thinking Skills and Teacher Strategies in Ethical and Value Dilemna Discussions among Elementary School Children
  A Description and Analysis of a Sequence of Innovative Social Studies Lessons Taught in an Elementary School
Variables measured: affective and skill traits of students; cognitive learning of students; teachers' instructional behavior.
Products being developed: booklets and filmstrips and audiotapes for students with accompanying guides for teachers on Changing Neighborhoods: Nigeria, Mexico, Boston West End, India, Navaho. To be published by L. W. Singer Co. for grades 4-5.
Services at site: demonstration film and tape illustrating curriculum and instructional materials development; explanation of curriculum and instructional materials development.
Regularly open: 9 a.m.-5 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation from airport: taxi; from downtown: bus or taxi. Advance arrangement necessary for visit. Contact Harold Berlak or Timothy Tomlinson.

ESCAROSA HUMANITIES CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CENTER

Charles V. Branch, Director
248 East Chase Street
Pensacola, Florida 32502
Type: developmental dissemination and implementation/application.

No data report issued to data. Program evaluation begun January 7, 1970 with no specified date for publication. Purpose is to assess in-service training/curriculum development.
Variables to be measured:

affective: teachers' perception of their role and attitudes toward students; students' behavioral changes.

Unreported data on student achievement and other dimensions not fully analyzed.

Product presently available: newsletter, Escarosa Speaks, available on request. Numerous other materials not presently available for distribution are accessible to site visitors.

Services at site: tour; information handouts; queries discussed with Director or other appropriate staff personnel.
Demonstration: live and video-taped in-service training and curriculum development; live instruction and videotaped on and off site (in participating public schools in Pensacola) illustrating application of curriculum and teacher training techniques.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: Curriculum development, in service training program. A multi-media, pupil centered approach is used in development of curriculum focusing on local history (grades 1-4) and American history (middle grades through high school). Cultural enrichment, exposure to local historical sites and development of a resource center are given special emphasis.

Availability: Monday-Friday, 9:00 a.m.--5:00 p.m., advance arrangements necessary. Recommended local transportation: taxi, auto-rental. Contact Mr. Branch.

Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, and consultants.

WGG

GEOGRAPHY CURRICULUM PROJECT (ELEMENTARY)

Dr. M. J. Rice, Director
University of Georgia
Margaret Hall, Millege Ave., Athens, Georgia 30601
Type: developmental/implementation/dissemination

Data reported in unpublished doctoral dissertations at the University of Georgia:
Imperatore, William A., Evaluation of A Conceptual Geography Unit for Kindergarten, 1969.
Steinbrink, John E., The Effectiveness of a Conceptual Model as an Advanced Organizer, 1970.
Unreported data, now being gathered, include tryout results of a unit on "Places and Environment." Expected available fall 1970.
Cognitive variables measured: pupils' knowledge of concepts.

Products presently available:
Ball, John M., and others, Bibliography in Geographic Education, ed. 1969 (mimeo)
Unit package includes information for teacher, pupil text or workbook and tests for pre- and post-testing, for grades:
K--Earth: Man's Home
primary--Place and Environment
Resource and Production (expected fall 1970)
Regions (expected fall 1970)
5--Rural Landscape (expected fall 1970)

Services at site: information handouts; queries discussed with Director or program development assistant.
Demonstration: available only occasionally, when pilot tryout is in progress. List of schools (across the country) using material available on request.
Elements explained/discussed: curriculum development, curriculum and instructional materials and development. Project materials and data reports may be examined.
Regularly open: 8:30 a.m.--5:30 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi. Advance arrangement necessary for visit; contact the Director.
Suitable for social studies and elementary supervisors and curriculum directors; consultants in geographic education.

MJR/JCM

HUMAN DIGNITY PROGRAM

Arthur Satterlie, General Secondary Consultant
Vallejo City Unified School District
211 Valle Vista Avenue, Vallejo, California 94590
Type: Experimental/developmental/dissemination

Data based report available: Human Dignity Through American History S^3C^2 Evaluation Report (Vallejo Unified School District, 1969), 26p.
Variables measured:

affective: students' attitudes toward human dignity.

cognitive: students' knowledge of Negro history; general knowledge of U.S. history on standardized test.

Unreported data: affective measures of students involved in Human Dignity Program (to be published by Vallejo Schools; date not specified).

Products presently available: Human Disnity through American History, grades 5-8-11 (Developmental stage); Human Dignity through World History, grades 6-7-9-10 (Experimental stage); Humanities-oriented English-Language Arts Program, grades K-12 (Embryonic stage).
Specially assembled packet for prospective site visitors available; contains curriculum guides, evaluation report and other pertinent information. Cost--$10.00.

Services at site: tour; queries discussed with appropriate personnel.
Demonstration: videotape demonstrations of in-service training, classroom instruction, planned for near future; live instruction, in-service (not regular) may be arranged.
Elements demonstrated/ explained/ discussed: curriculum development, curriculum materials, instructional materials and development, teacher training program.
Open during normal week hours; advance arrangements necessary, preferable 3-5 weeks prior to visit; recommended local transportation: auto-rental. Contact Mr. Satterlie.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, school board members and consultants.

WGG

IMPROVING ATTITUDES VIA CULTURAL UNDERSTANDING OF MINORITIES

Dr. Joseph Brzenski, Deputy Superintendent
Denver Public Schools
414 Fourteenth Street, Denver, Colorado 80202
Type: developmental/dissemination and implementation/application

Data base: Improving Attitudes, Cultural Understanding and the Opportunity for Achievement. Denver Public Schools, Denver, Colorado, May, 1968, and May, 1969.
Variables measured:

affective: social attitudes toward Anglo, Hispanic, Negro, and Asian Americans.

Cognitive: cultural understanding of minority and majority groups in city of Denver and in the Southwest.

Products presently available: Attitude Inventory Practice Form, Sematic Differential Attitude Assessment, and manual for administration. Teacher Reference Sheets for Television Programs; Films for television available from Great Plains Library, Lincoln, Nebraska, on cost basis, films titled: Sources of Understanding; Reservations in the Southwest; Indian Life in a City, Hispanic Heritage, Hispanic Life in a City; Patriots and Western Pioneers, American Negroes in Our City and Nation, Asian American Heritage, Festivals, Fun, and the Future, Understanding for the Future.

Services at site: tour; information handouts; queries discussed with Program Director and Program Developer.
Demonstration: film presentation on program development; live instruction in Denver Public Schools.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: program development, program materials, schedules for administration of the program.

Regularly open: 9:00 a.m.--3:00 p.m., Monday through Friday. Recommended local transportation: taxi. Two week advance arrangement for visit necessary; contact Dr. Brzenski.

Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, and consultants.

MLH

INTERGROUP RELATIONS PROGRAM

Dr. John S. Gibson, Director
Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs
Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts 02155
Type: developmental/implementation/dissemination

Data reported in A program for Elementary School Education: The Intergroup Relations Curriculum (2 vols.), 1969. ED-030-605. Evaluation made of program, as used in three local schools one summer, includes both affective and cognitive variables.

Products available: The Intergroup Relations Curriculum (two volumes sold as a unit). Second volume presents techniques and procedures for teachers' use in social studies in a program both for and about the disadvantaged (minority groups). A set of illustrations ($25) and a teacher-training seminar ($300) are also separately available.

Services at site: information handouts; discussion of queries; filmed demonstration; explanation of developmental work. For general information on program, contact Miss Doreen Blanc, Curriculum Specialist.
Demonstration: film (see above); live in local school by prearrangement. Contact Mr. Major Morris, Coordinator, Intergroup Relations Program. Advance arrangement necessary.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: teaching ethnic, human, or intergroup relations; reducing ethnocentrism; minority groups and disadvantaged, including inner-city, schools; development of program for elementary school teachers. Materials cited above may be examined.
Regularly open: 8:30 a.m.--4:30 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi from Logan Airport; from Boston (North Station), subway to Clarendon and bus to Powderhouse Square (1/4-mile walk to University). Advance arrangement for visit to Center preferred (contact Miss Blanc); for visit to local school demonstration, necessary (contact Mr. Morris).
Suitable for social studies and elementary supervisors and curriculum directors, and consultants.

MJR/JCM

LAW IN AMERICAN SOCIETY FOUNDATION

Dr. Robert H. Ratcliffe, Director
Room 850, 29 S. LaSalle St., Chicago, Illinois 60603
Type: developmental/dissemination/implementation/application

Date reported in: "Teaching Law as an Integer of Social Studies," Illinois Journal of Education, January, 1970. Unpublished annual evaluation report. Unpublished dissertations Jack Zevin, Training Teachers in the Inquiry Method: The Effects of an In-Service Institute on Teachers' Behavior in the Classroom, University of Michigan, 1969; J. Willard Harris, An Examination of Materials for the Political Socialization of Inner City Children, Northwestern University, 1970; An Experimental Evaluation of Fifth Grade Materials on Law and American History, Northwestern University, 1970.

Variables measured:

affective: various affective traits of students and teachers, grades 5-12.

cognitive: various cognitive traits of teachers, grades 5-12.

Unreported data involving evaluation of students and teachers planned for publication fall 1970 or later (undecided).

Products presently available: 4 casebooks (textbooks) and accompanying Teacher's Handbooks, by Robert H. Ratcliffe and others, published by Houghton-Mifflin, 1970, Law in a New Land (middle grades), The Law and American History (junior high), Legal Issues in American History (senior high), Justice in Urban American (senior high), latter also available as 6 booklets in Justice in Urban America Series. Intended for courses in American history and government, civics, problems, and urban affairs. For disadvantaged and other students: about half of content concerns inner-city people. Focused on law, social issues, and problems.

Services at site: information handouts (sample instructional materials and latest annual report); live demonstration off-site (in local schools).

Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: curriculum development and instructional materials development and teacher training in inquiry techniques during summer institutes (probably operative during summers 1970 and 1971). Concerning instruction in grades 5-12 (see products above for courses and emphases).

Regularly open: 9:30 a.m.--5:00 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: airport limousine to LaSalle Hotel; taxi to schools. Advance arrangement (minimum one month) necessary for visit.

Suitable for social studies and secondary supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, and school board members.

JCM

MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY

Mr. Peter Dow, Director
Social Studies Curriculum Project
Educational Development Center
15 Mifflin Place, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138
Type: developmental/implementation/dissemination

Data reported chiefly in Janet Hanley and others, Curiosity, Competence, Community, Educational Development Center, 1970.
Variables measured:

affective: pupils' attitudes toward cultural factors and the course; teachers' attitudes toward the course.

cognitive: pupils' information level, comprehension, and reasoning ability involving course content.

instructional: teachers' instructional behavior including interaction with and among pupils.

Products available: course material including 16 films with teacher guide and printed (illustrated) pupil material accompanying each. Printed material is $325 for class-size set. Film (16 mm.) rental is $225 for set of 16; purchase (super 8 mm.) $1,750 for set (with purchase of 5 sets printed material). Teacher training required prior to use of material. For grade 5 or 6 (recommended for grade 6 with disadvantaged pupils). Information brochure, Man: A Course of Study, free on request. Other occasional products.

Services at site: information handouts; discussion on queries; demonstration and explanation of curriculum development; film demonstration. Sample curriculum sets may be ordered for examination.
Regularly open: 9 a.m.-4 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: from Logan Airport, taxi; from Boston, subway to Harvard Yard station. Advance arrangement desired for visit. Recommended that interested individuals contact one of the NSF-supported Regional Centers to arrange for visit, training, or material procurement. Regional centers are listed on next page.
Suitable for: social studies supervisors and curriculum directors, and consultants.

MJR/JCM

Regional Centers for MAN: A COURSE OF STUDY

WEST

Thomas Fitzgerald
Temple Buell College
1800 Pontiac St.
Denver, Colorado 80220
303 394-6012

SOUTH

James Sundeen
Florida State University
933 W. College Ave.
Tallahassee, Fla. 32306
904 559-4409

MIDWEST

Paul Bloomquist
Room C-319
Northeastern State College
Chicago, Inninois 60625
312 583-4050 Ext. 208

EAST

John Herlihy
635 James St.
Syracuse, New York 13203
315 474-5321

NORTH WEST

William Harris
College of Education
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403
503 342-1141 Ext. 1180

James Kohler
Tri-University Project
University of Nebraska
Lincoln, Nebraska
402 472-2565

EAST COAST

Dennen Reilley
Central Connecticut State College
1615 Stanley St.
New Britain, Connecticut 06050
203 225-7481 Ext. 487

MILWAUKEE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Mr. Arthur Rumpf, social studies supervisor
Milwaukee Public Schoo
5225 West Vliet Street, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Type: Developmental/dissemination and implementation/application

Data base: Ashbaugh, William H., Seventh Grade Social Studies Program Evaluation. Milwaukee, Wisc.: Department of Psychological Services and Educational Research, Milwaukee Public Schools, Sept. 6, 1966-June 16, 1967. (mimeo) ERIC ED 019 334. 29 pages. Program has been in operation since above date. No additional data collected. Staff efforts have been in materials revision and production. Since 1967 program has been expanded to include all seventh grades in district. Variables measured:

affective:	teachers, principals, and pupils reaction to materials; pupils attitude toward citizenship responsibilities.
cognitive:	work/study skills; anthropological approach to cultural universals, i.e. food, shelter, family, art forms, government, etc.

Product presently available: pupil and teacher materials The American, Readings to Accompany The American, Teachers Manual, The American, available in single copies for examination, $6.

Services at site: tour; queries discussed with social studies supervisor or ESEA supervising teacher.
Demonstration: live instruction off site (in inner-city schools).
Elements demonstrated/explained, discussed: curriculum development, curriculum materials, instructional materials and development. Project directors urge prospective site visitors procure materials to assure familiarity prior to site visit.

Regularly open: 9:00-5:00 p.m. daily, September through June. Recommended local transportation: taxi. One week advance arrangement preferred, contact Mr. Rumpf or Mr. Harold Hohenfeldtat address above.

Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, consultants, and school board members.

MLH

MULTICULTURAL SOCIAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

Dr. Dell Felder, Program Director
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
Commodore Perry Hotel, 800 Brazos St., Austin, Texas 78701
Type: developmental/dissemination/implementation project

No data report issued to date. Program evaluation planned for publication in 1972. Purpose is assessment and revision of materials and program.
Variables to be measured:

affective: teachers' reactions to materials; pupils' reactions to learning tasks.

cognitive: pupils' recall, concept application, synthesizing and evaluating abilities.

Unreported data include pupil daily performances on mastery and unit criteria tests. Also daily teacher checklist response to performance vis-a-vis behavioral objectives for daily lessons. Checklist stresses teaching time, pupil interest, and pupil performance. Completed checklists are analyzed by site coordinator, seeking to "red flag" problems.

Product presently available: Multicultural Social Education Soundslide Presentation (overview of program) available on request, borrower to pay return postage. 16 min. audio tape, 2-projector slide program.
Other materials not generally available for distribution but may be examined by site visitor.
Expected available September, 1970: 16 first-grade Multicultural Social Education Units (for teachers), and Teacher's Information Manual, First-Year Program. Other materials will be available later.

Services at site: tour; information handouts; queries discussed with Information Briefing Office or Social Education Program personnel.
Demonstration: soundslide program (see above); live instruction off-site (in selected public schools in Texas), using basic concepts in program from sociology, anthropology, economics, geography, political science, and social psychology with stress on cognitive skill development.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: curriculum development, curriculum materials, instructional materials and development, teacher training program and materials. Materials cited above may be examined. Two staff development training modules and some second-grade units now in process of development. A social studies readiness Early Childhood Education Program for ages 2-5 is being developed. It stresses overcoming cultural experience deprivation. Social studies elements not distinctively identifiable.

Regularly open: 8:30 a.m.--5:30 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi. Advance arrangement for visit preferred; contact Dr. Felder.

Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators, and consultants.

JCM

SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION CONSORTIUM

Dr. Irving Morrissett, Executive Director
Social Science Education Consortium, Inc.
1424 Fifteenth Street, Boulder, Colorado 80302
Type: dissemination

Social Science project materials have been collected into a curriculum library. A number of these project materials have been analyzed by the Consortium staff using scheme developed by staff. Some curriculum projects have been tested in school districts in vicinity of Boulder with samples of rural/urban, disadvantaged/non-disadvantaged students.

Unreported data include descriptions of trials of social science education project materials and reports based on tryouts in schools.

Products presently available: position papers on aspects of social science education, topics and pricelist available on request.
Curriculum projects materials and results of trials not available for general distribution but may be examined by site visitor.

Services at site: Use of curriculum library, examination of results of trials of project materials, examination of analyses of projects materials, queries discussed with Consortium personnel.
Regularly open: 9:00 a.m.--5:00 p.m. daily. Recommended local transportation: taxi. One week advance arrangement for visit necessary; contact Dr. Morrissett.
Suitable for social studies supervisors, curriculum directors and consultants.

MLH

SOUTH BRONX MULTI-PURPOSE SUPPLEMENTARY EDUCATION CENTER (SOMPSEC)

Mr. Joe Matthews, director
South Bronx Education Center (SOMPSEC)
368 E. 157 St., Bronx, N.Y. 10451
Type: implementation/application/demonstration

Data reports issued to date: Program evaluations by The Psychological Corporation (1968) and Westinghouse (1969).
Variables measured:

affective: student reactions, self-images (1968)

No further data reports planned.

Products presently available: African History (pamphlet); Conozca A Puerto Rico (historical facts); SOMPSEC (program overview).
Other materials not generally available for distribution but may be examined by site visitor.

Services at site: tour of African, Afro-American and Puerto Rican heritage rooms; library-resource center; fine arts gallery; queries discussed with staff.
Demonstration: lecture-slides presentation of Afro-American history; lecture-demonstration of Puerto Rican Culture; demonstration of live instruction in native dances, songs, music; Fine Arts gallery and studio instruction also live.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: program development, materials; instructional materials, development.
Regularly open Monday--Saturday. Advance arrangements highly desirable. Recommended local transportation: taxi, subway, bus. Contact Mr. Matthews.
Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, administrators and consultants.

WGG

WESTERN BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE

Wayman J. Crow, Director
Western Behavioral Sciences Institute
1150 Silverado, La Jolla, California 92037
Type: developmental/dissemination center

Data based report: "Exploring Classroom Uses of Simulations." W.B.S.I., 1966, 22 p.
Affective variables measured: 2,500 San Diego pupils' reactions to simulations.
Unreported data: "Longitudinal Study of Change in Urban Context as a Result of Simulations in Minority Communities," no date given.

Products presently available:
- Publications for teachers about simulation materials:
  - Occasional Newsletter--subscription $5 (3 issues)
  - Occasional Newsletter--set $5 (9 back issues)
  - "Exploring Classroom Uses of Simulations," 90¢
  - "Using Simulations to Teach International Relations," $1.25
- Films showing simulations. Rental arrangement possible.
- Educational Simulations for classes:
  - "Plans:" Sample Set ($3.00); 25 or 35 Student Kit ($35.00 and $50.00)
  - "Sitte:" Sample Set ($3.00); 25 or 35 Student Kit ($35.00 and $50.00)
  - "Starpower:" Do-it-yourself instructions ($3.00); 18-35 Student Kit ($15.0

Services at site: tour; information handouts, queries discussed with staff.
Demonstration: simulations, filmed and live, on site.
Elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: Curriculum development/materials; Instructional materials/development; Simulations.

Regularly open by appointment during week. Recommended local transportation: auto, auto-rental, taxi. Contact Dr. Crow.

Suitable for social studies and general supervisors, curriculum directors, educators with special interest in simulations.

WGG

ABSTRACTS OF DATA REPORTS

Guide to the Abstracts

Each abstract of a data report includes an identifying citation, a rating of the report's basic characteristics, and an analytical summary labeled "abstract." The abstract of each report rated is on a form that includes the following alternative entries:

DESIGN: structure explained; structure implied; rationale explained; rationale implied; none
TECHNIQUE: theory; survey; experiment; testing; description
DATA: hard; tangible but not adequate; impressionistic; omitted
ANALYSIS: refined; incisive but subjective; vague; omitted
UTILITY: background; implications; applications

The abstractor of each report, a Study Staff member, is identified at the end of each abstract by his initials as follows:

William George Gaines--WGG
Michael L. Hawkins--MLH
Jonathon C. McLendon--JCM
Donald O. Schneider--DOS
Larry M. Strickland--LMS
Marion J. Rice--MJR

Data Reports on Social Studies for and About Disadvantaged

for

Ashbaugh (1968)
Ashbaugh (1966-67)
Baines
Brzeinski
Cheyney
Davies
Dooley
Dow
Edgar
Estes
Farran
Foerster
Georgeoff
Gibboney
Gold
Gornick
Greene
Gustafson
Guysenir
Hayes
Hess (1969)
Hess (1968)
Hunt
Imperatore
Jones
Kamm
Karnes
King
Larkins
McFarlane
Miller
Murray
North
Potterfield
Portugaly
Ratcliffe
Rousch
Schnepf
Scott
Sexton
Smith
Spears
Stoakes
Teahan
Thomas
Uphoff
Wheeler
Wilson
Young

about

Ashbaugh (1968)
Brzeinski
Carpenter
Estes
Fisher
Gast
Georgeoff
Gibboney
Goff
Gustafson
Hayes
Jones
Larrick
Litcher
Marcus
Menge
Miller
Muller
Neidell
North
Roth
Sloan
Smith
Stampp
Teahan
Whitla

Data Reports on Elementary and Secondary Social Studies

elementary*

Brzeinski
Cheyney
Dooley
Dow
Fisher
Foerster
Gast
Georgeoff
Gibboney
Goff
Gornick
Grannis
Greene
Hess (1969)
Hess (1968)
Hunt
Imperatore
Karnes
Larkins
Larnick
Litcher
McFarlane
Menge
Muller
North
Portugaly
Potterfield
Ratcliffe
Roth
Schnepf
Smith
Spears
Stampp
Teahan
Thomas
Wheeler

secondary**

Ashbaugh (1968)
Ashbaugh (1966-67)
Blaxall
Baines
Carpenter
Davies
Edgar
Estes
Farran
Gast
Goff
Gold
Gustafson
Guysenir
Hayes
Hess
Jones
Kamm
King
Larrick
Marcus
Menge
Miller
Muller
Murray
North
Ratcliffe
Rousch
Schnepf
Scott
Sexton
Sloan
Stampp
Stoakes
Teahan
Uphoff
Wheeler
Whitla
Wilson
Young

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*including occasionally pre-school level

**including rarely college level

ABSTRACTS OF DATA REPORTS LISTED BY AUTHORS

Ashbaugh, William H., dir., Evaluation of Seminar '68 Program--ESEA (Title I). B-7

Ashbaugh, William H., dir., Seventh Grade Social Studies Program Evaluation. B-8

Baines, Thomas E., The Use of Selected Materials, Based on Reading Level, to Improve Achievement of Slow Learners in a World History Course. B-9 & 10

Blaxall, John, Game Learning and Disadvantaged Groups. B-11

Brzeinski, Joseph E., dir., Improving Attitudes, Cultural Understanding and the Opportunity for Achievement. B-12, 13, 14 & 15

Carpenter, L.P. and Dinah Rank, The Treatment of Minorities: A Survey of Textbooks Used in Missouri High Schools. B-16 & 17

Cheyney, Arnold B., Curricular Methods Used by Outstanding Teachers of Culturally Disadvantaged Elementary School Children. B-18 & 19

Davies, Walter L., A Comparative Study of the Performance of Pupils from Low, High and Economically Diversified Socio-Economic Areas on Test Items from a Social Studies Achievement Battery. B-20 & 21

Dooley, Bobby Joe, A Comparison of Pupil Test Performance on Two Units in Elementary Economics with a Select Sample of Disadvantaged Children. B-22 & 23

Dow, Peter B., dir., Man: A Course of Study: A Brief Review of Evaluation Findings. B-24, 25 & 26

Edgar, Robert W., The Impact on Learning and Retention of Specially Developed History Materials for Culturally Deprived Children: An Exploratory Study. B-27 & 28

Estes, Jack Richard, Friendship Patterns and Attitudes Toward the United States Bill of Rights. B-29 & 30

Farran, Dale C., Competition and Learning for Underachievers. B-31 & 32

Fisher, Frank L., The Influences of Reading and Discussion on the Attitudes of Fifth Graders Toward American Indians. B-33 & 34

Foerster, Leona M., The Development of Time Sense and Chronology of Culturally Disadvantaged Children. B-35 & 36

Gast, David Karl, Characteristics and Concepts of Minority Americans in Contemporary Children's Fictional Literature. B-37

Georgeoff, P. John, The Elementary Curriculum as a Factor in Racial Understanding. B-38 & 39

Gibboney, Richard A., An Experiment to Determine the Relationship Between Socio-Economic Status and Achievement in the Social Studies. B-40

Goff, Regina, The Teaching of Negro History in the Public Schools of the Nation. B-41

Gold, Ben K., Project Summer '67: An Experimental Program for Educationally Disadvantaged Youth--An Evaluation. B-42 & 43

Gornick, Richard, A Study of the Relationship Between A Conceptual Framework and the Transference of Learning in the Social Studies. B-44 & 45

Grannis, Joseph C., Case Studies of Children's Thinking About Social Phenomena. B-46 & 47

Greene, William W., Jr., Anthropological Teaching in the First and Fourth Grades: A Comparison of Trained and Non-Trained Teachers as Measured by Pupil Test Performance. B-48, 49 & 50

Gustafson, Lucille, Relationships Between Ethnic Group Membership and the Retention of Selected Facts Pertaining to American History and Culture. B-51 & 52

Guysenir, Marrice G. and Nils J. Hedstrom, Teaching American History in Inner-City Schools. B-53 & 54

Hayes, Anna Marie and Clyde Montgomery, Pilot Study: Afro-American Instructional Curriculum Laboratory. B-55 & 56

Hess, Robert D., dir., Authority, Rules, and Agression, A Cross-National Study of the Socialization of Children Into Compliance Systems. B-57 & 58

Hess, Robert D. and Judith V. Torney, The Development of Political Attitudes in Children. B-59, 60 & 61

Hunt, Anne Johnson, Anthropology Achievement of Normal and Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children. B-62, 63 & 64

Imperatore, William A., Evaluation of A Conceptual Geography Unit for Kindergarten. B-65, 66 & 67

Jones, William Ernest, An Investigation of the Case Method of Instruction in Selected Eighth Grade Civics Classes. B-68 & 69

Kamm, Ernest, Teaching Conceptual Thinking to Culturally Disadvantaged Youths by the Didactic-Successive, Didactic-Simultaneous, Heuristic-Successive, Heuristic-Simultaneous Methods. B-70

Karnes, Merle B., A Comparative Study of Two Preschool Programs for Culturally Disadvantaged Children--A Highly Structured and a Traditional Program. B-71 & 72

King, Charles E., dir., A Report on a Behavior Inventory of Pupils Who Attended Title I Summer Institute of 1968. B-73 & 74

Larkins, Amasa Guy, Assessing Achievement on a First Grade Economics Course of Study. B-75

Larrick, Nancy. The All-White World of Children's Books. B-76

Litcher, John H. and David W. Johnson, Changes in Attitudes Toward Negroes of White Elementary School Students After Use of Multiethnic Readers. B-77 & 78

McFarlane, Paul T., Pilot Studies of Role Behavior in a Parent-Child Simulation Game. B-79

Marcus, Lloyd, The Treatment of Minorities in Secondary School Textbooks. B-80 & 81

Menge, J.W., chmn., A Report on the Treatment of Minorities in American History Textbooks. B-82 & 83

Miller, James P., Profile of Title I Project: English as a Second Language (Secondary Level) B-84

Muller, Daniel and Trinidad, Human Dignity Through American History: S^3C^2 Evaluation Report. B-85, 86 & 87

Murray, R.T., dir., et al., Project GESS (Government and English for Senior Students). B-88 & 89

Neidell, Sophie G., An Exploration of Young Children's Concepts of People of Foreign Origin and Implications for Kindergarten Curricula. B-90 & 91

North, Robert D., Evaluation Report for the ESEA Title III Project South Bronx Multi-Purpose Supplementary Educational Center (SOMPSEC). B-92

Portugaly, Drora, A Study of the Development of Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children's Understanding of the Earth as a Globe. B-93 & 94

Potterfield, James E., An Analysis of Elementary School Children's Ability to Learn Anthropological Content at Grades Four, Five, and Six. B-95, 96 & 97

Ratcliffe, Robert H., dir., Evaluation of Law in American Society Project 1968-69 Academic Year. B-98, 99 & 100

Roth, Rodney, The Effects of Black Studies and Teacher Authoritarianism on White Students' Attitude Change Toward Negroes. B-101

Rousch, Robert E., Changing Teacher Behavior with Videotape Feedback. B-102

Schnepf, Virginia, A Study of Political Socialization: Negro Children's Knowledge of and Attitudes Toward the Police, Law, and Freedom. B-103

Scott, Ellis Bryan, A Survey of Educational Programs for Agricultural Migrant Children During 1967. B-104

Sexton, Patricia Cayo, Education and Income Inequalities of Opportunity in Our Public Schools. B-105

Sloan, Irving, The Negro in Modern American History Textbooks (3rd edition). B-106

Smith, Twila M.W., The Place of History in Elementary School Social Studies: A Proposed Program to Include the Role of Negro Americans. B-107 & 108

Spears, Sol, Children's Concept Learning in Economics Under Three Experimental Curricula. B-109

Stampp, Kenneth, et al., The Negro in American History Textbooks: A Report of a Study of the Treatment of Negroes in American History Textbooks Used in Grades Five and Eight and in the High Schools of California's Public Schools. B-110

Stoakes, Dean Wendell, An Educational Experiment with the Homogeneous Grouping of Mentally Advanced and Slow Learning Students in the Junior High School. B-111 & 112

Teahan, John E., Some Effects of Audio-Visual Techniques on Aspirational Level and Ethnocentric Shift. Final Report. B-113, 114 & 115

Thomas,Georgelle, The Use of Programed Instruction for Teaching Anthropology to the Fifth Grade. B-116, 117 & 118

Uphoff, James Kent, Senior High School Social Studies Programs for Low Achievers. B-119

Wheeler, Robert, dir., Evaluation of the ESEA Program, Title I September 1, 1967 through August 31, 1968. B-120 & 121

Whitla, Dean K. and Janet P. Hanley, One Nation Indivisible: An Experiment in Nationwide Instructional Television Evaluation Report. B-122 & 123

Wilson, James Bruce, A Pilot Study Using Selected Materials in American History for Slow Learners. B-24

Young, Christine, dir., South Miami Junior High School Curriculum Project. B-125

ABSTRACTS OF DATA REPORTS

Ashbaugh, William H., dir. Evaluation of Seminar '68 Program--ESEA (Title I). Milwaukee, Wis.: Milwaukee Public Schools, 1968. (mimeo) ERIC ED 028 213. 76 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Seminar '68 was an inter-school summer seminar designed to give high school students of varying racial and cultural backgrounds the opportunity to meet each other and learn about the patterns which constitute prejudice. Objectives were to: (1) investigate physical and historical relationships of peoples of the United States; (2) examine the nature of prejudice; (3) study discrimination practices; (4) learn how minorities react to discrimination; and (5) see differences between American belief and practice. The group contained 49 students (nearly 75% white, and the rest non-white). Approximately 62% of the group's family income ranged from $4,000 to $10,000 annually. Several evaluative techniques were employed. Students self-evaluated each of 8 key content areas. Students' weekly self-evaluations revealed content areas with lowest ratings were those dealing with studies of the past, whereas current issues were judged most valuable. Staff evaluations concurred on this point. Student attitudes showed a more negative view of blacks, little or no change in view of whites (No breakdown by race given; however the researcher cautions against forming opinions about the Seminar's effect on attitudes.

WGG

Ashbaugh, William H., dir. Seventh Grade Social Studies Program Evaluation. Milwaukee, Wis.: Department of Psychological Services and Educational Research, Milwaukee Public Schools, Sept. 6, 1966-June 16, 1967. (mimeo) ERIC ED 019 334. 29 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study proposed to strengthen work/study skills in social studies for disadvantaged pupils. The experiment operated in 6 central-city junior high schools for 2 semesters using all 7th-graders (20 classes, 288 students the first semester; 21 classes, 306 students the second semester). Students were selected on the basis of poor academic background and without regard to socio-economic status. Classes averaged 15 students per teacher.

A new course of study was written by the supervisory staff and social studies teachers. It presented a brief survey of western civilization and an anthropological approach to a series of units, each dealing with a cultural universal, for example, food and shelter. The 2nd semester dealt with institutions, such as the family, art forms, and government. Participation as a citizen was stressed. A test-retest design was used to evaluate changes in achievement and attitudes. The Stanford Achievement Test (Study Skills) and Seventh Grade Social Studies Test measured content, and the Pupil Attitude Scale was developed by the research staff. Also used were teacher and principal evaluations. The findings are limited by the lack of a control group and the fact that the attitude scale was not developed until the second semester. Significant improvements on the Stanford Achievement Test (.01 level), the Seventh Grade Social Studies Test (.01 level), and the Attitude Scale (.01 level) were reported for post-tests as compared to pre-tests.

WGG

Baines, Thomas E. *The Use of Selected Materials, Based on Reading Level, to Improve Achievement of Slow Learners in a World History Course*. Newport News, Va.: Research Department, Newport News Public Schools, 1967-1968. (mimeo) 8 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale implied
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Huntington High School in Newport News investigated the effect on learning, among low achieving 10th-graders, of Jack Abramowitz's Basic Learning Program in World History (Follett) plus supplementary material compared with regular textbook material. Students scoring below the 40th percentile on STEP 3A Social Studies and Reading Tests in the 9th grade were designated "slow learners." No attempt was made to identify or correlate socio-economic status. Of 7 "slow" classes (184 students) 4 classes of randomly assigned students taught by 2 teachers were involved in the experiment. IQ tests (Otis) indicated no significant differences. Similarly scores on the Cooperative Social Studies Tests, (Form A) which served as a pre-test, were not significantly different. Each teacher taught one experimental and one control class. The Follett program was supplemented by multi-texts, films, filmstrips, and other audio-visual materials. Students in the control group used conventional basal texts, but apparently were not exposed to the supplementary material used in the experimental class. Hence, differences cited below could have resulted from the multi-media approach or the basic reading materials or both.

After nearly a full academic year of study, data were compared from teacher-made tests, assigned grades, class attendance, Cooperative Social Studies scores (Form B) post-test, teacher-student interviews, and teacher reactions. Findings were highly favorable relative to the experimental group, which scored significantly higher than the control group on the achievement test as well as their own pre-test score; contrastingly, the control group showed no significant gains from pre- to post-test. Teacher-assigned grades were also significantly higher for the treatment group and resulted in enough grade mean difference to raise the entire "slow" group score (171 students) to the level of significance ($p < .01$) in comparison to grade means for all groups (including average and above). Additionally, the percent of failing grades was significantly reduced (in excess of 8% fewer). Absenteeism was also significantly reduced ($p < .01$) among experimental students with attendance running nearly 5% higher than in control classes.

Teachers noted greater interest and motivation, a more relaxed attitude, and a greater willingness to participate among experimental students, but concluded that world history was too sophisticated for slow learners and it should not be "watered down" since this would distort the values of teaching such a course.

DOS

Blaxall, John. Game Learning and Disadvantaged Groups. Cambridge, Mass.: Abt Associates, Inc., 1965. (mimeo) 10 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: none reported
TECHNIQUE: description
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: vague
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

This is a summary of "experiences" of Abt Associates' experimental game program with disadvantaged youth in the Boston area. Only a limited number of students were involved (no more than 20 at any one time and usually groups were smaller). Ages of students ranged from 9 to 17. The report is brief and descriptive, lacking hard data and evidence of continued experimentation. Conclusions rest on observation, interviews, and teacher reactions. The games used were Raid--interaction of police, racketeers, and neighborhood representatives; Adventuring--English Civil War period game centering on the lives of 3 different socio-economic level families; and Manchester--another historical epoch game focusing on the Industrial Revolution in 18th-century England.

During the summer,1965, groups of students were involved in a special program rather than in regular school routine. The reporters claim several advantages for academic games including:

1. students are actively involved in a learning situation.
2. immediate reinforcement for "correct" decisions.
3. encouragement of self-development through rational decision-making, self-restraint, and "broadening horizons" through role-playing.
4. relevance of games to student needs and interests.
5. stretching of student's attention span.
6. encouragement of communication among normally uncommunicative students.
7. learning of abstract ideas is facilitated.
8. games are self-teaching and result in a changed role for the teacher which can help develop a better student-teacher relationship.
9. classroom discipline becomes less of a problem since students willingly accept game rules.

While observations of Abt's staff may be very perceptive, caution should be taken in accepting the generalizations in this report. They are unsupported by data, based on a limited sample, and involved students in an abnormal instructional situation that may have heightened the "glow" of an already likely halo effect.

DOS

Brzeinski, Joseph E., dir. Improving Attitudes, Cultural Understanding and the Opportunity for Achievement. Denver, Colo.: Denver Public Schools, May 1968. (mimeo) ESEA Title III (PACE) Project No. 67-3216. 101 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

The objectives of this project were: (1) to equalize educational opportunities for all students by improving the self-concept of minority pupils, (2) to improve cultural understanding by providing sources of information concerning the historical and cultural contributions of minority people, and (3) to improve social attitudes toward different ethnic groups by providing the opportunity for direct contact experiences between pupils of varying ethnic backgrounds.

Participating in the project were 81 Denver public school 5th-grade classes and 15 parochial school 5th-grade classes (total--96). These classes were categorized as predominantly Negro, Hispanic, or Anglo in composition. From each ethnic group classes were randomly assigned to one of 6 treatment groups. Three types of treatments were applied: (1) 16 weekly telecasts of programs designed to improve cultural understanding and attitudes toward Asian Americans, American Indians, Hispanic Americans, and American Negroes; (2) field trips with "buddies" (children of different ehtnic backgrounds from other schools) to community cultural agencies which provided activities in music, art, drama, and history; (3) classroom social activities with buddies including music, drama, and art. The 6 treatment groups were allotted these activities as follows:

Group 1:	telecasts only
Group 2:	telecasts and field trips
Group 3:	telecasts and classroom social activities
Group 4:	telecasts, field trips, and classroom social activities
Group 5:	field trips and classroom social activities
Group 6:	control (non-participants)

Four tests were specially constructed to measure factual knowledge concerning historical and present cultures of the 4 ethnic groups treated in the telecasts; these tests were administered on a pre-test and post-test basis. Using analyses of covariance, differences between pre-test and post-test scores of treatment and ethnic groups were found not attributable to chance

factors ($p < .001$). The attitudinal measure, a modification of Osgood's Semantic Differential Tests, was found to have a reliability coefficient of .794, using the test-retest method with a two-day interim.

Much statistical evidence in this report is presented graphically, without narration; furthermore, the stated findings of the researcher represent interpretations of large segments of the data but by no means all of it. Therefore, this abstract includes the abstractor's interpretations of previously uninterpreted data.

Information assessment, researcher's findings: (1) All treatment groups differed significantly from the control group, with the exception of group 5 in the American Indian Inventory Analysis. (2) The Anglo pupils scored significantly higher than Negro and Hispanic pupils on all inventories. (3) The Anglo and Hispanic pupils tended to score higher in group 2, whereas the Negro pupils did better in groups 3 and 4. (4) Generally, groups 2, 4, and 3 respectively appeared to be the most effective treatment groups.

Information assessment, abstractor's findings: It should be noted that each of the 6 treatment groups included Anglo, Negro, and Hispanic pupils. When the researcher states that treatment groups did significantly better than the control group, no doubt the significantly higher performance of Anglo pupils contributed to this difference. The researcher reports no test of statistical significance by ethnic group for each treatment group; for example, it is not possible to say that Negro students in one treatment group were significantly higher in their scores than Negro pupils in the control group or any other treatment group; however, it is possible to say that scores were higher or lower in one treatment group compared to another treatment group, but solely on the basis of the graphic presentations in the document. Despite such limitations it is possible to conclude that (1) Negro pupils in all treatment groups scored higher than in the control group on all information tests except in group 1 where they scored the same on the American Negro Information Test. (2) Hispanic pupils in all treatment groups scored higher than in the control group on all information tests. Even though Anglo pupils scored significantly higher than Negro and Hispanic pupils on all inventories, there are notable exceptions: (1) The difference in the adjusted mean scores of Negro and Anglo pupils on the American Negro Information Test was the smallest measured difference between these 2 groups on any of the tests. Negro pupils actually outscored Anglo pupils in groups 4 and 5 as well as in the control group. (2) The difference in the adjusted mean scores of Hispanic and Anglo pupils on the Hispanic American Information Test was also lower than on the other tests with the exception of the American Negro Information Test. Is ethnicity a variable here?

Attitude assessment, researcher's findings: Although the researcher acknowledges a lack of consistency of relationships among the treatment groups on the attitude inventory, there were several appropriate findings: (1) significant differences were found by covariance analyses among treatment and ethnic groups in all sub-test attitude post-test scores. Groups 1, 2, and 4 scored significantly higher than the control group on the Hispanic-American and Asian-American attitude sub-tests. (2) Even though no significant differences appeared between control and other treatment groups on the Anglo, American Indian, and American Negro attitude sub-tests, groups 1, 2, and 4 were noted as the top three groups in all analyses except the American Negro attitude sub-test in which they all ranked high. (3) Hispanic pupils scored significantly higher than the Anglo and Negro groups on the Hispanic-American attitude sub-test. (4) The Negro pupils in each group scored higher than any other ethnic group on the American Negro attitude sub-test. The difference in scores between the Negro pupils and the Hispanic and Anglo pupils was statistically significant.

Attitude assessment, abstractor's findings: It appears that selective perception is at work in the attitudinal measure as well as in the information assessment, that is, a particular ethnic group has a highly favorable picture of itself. It would have been valuable if an Anglo attitude sub-test had been included to examine more closely Anglos' and others' attitudes toward this group, thus expanding the scope of the findings.

Conclusions and criticisms: The researcher claimed the following results: (1) self-concept of minority pupils was improved; (2) sources of understanding concerning the cultural contributions of minority people were provided by project activities; (3) social attitudes toward different ethnic groups were improved.

The evidence does point toward (2) and (3) above; however, the validity of (1) above is seriously in question. Based on difference in attitude toward one's self after treatment, there is no such evidence in this report. On the American Negro sub-total attitudinal measure the control group scored higher than 4 of the 5 treatment groups. Hispanic pupils did slightly better in treatment groups than in their control group on the Hispanic-American attitudinal measure. Statistically significant difference was not shown in either case.

The attitude measuring instrument used during the second year of the study was shortened and refined. When tested during the second year of operation the instrument yielded the same reliability coefficient (Pearson r of .794) as reported the previous year. The treatments for the second year involved telecasts and interaction-between-student-activities (each child had "buddies," one from each other major ethnic group) rather than the five treatment groups used the first year.

Scores on all ethnic sub-tests yielded statistically significant results favoring treatment groups. Each ethnic group scored highest on the sub-test that measured attitudes toward that group, that is, the Anglo students scored highest on the Anglo sub-test, the Hispanic students scored highest on the Hispanic sub-test, the Negro students scored highest on the Negro sub-test. On the Asian American and American Indian sub-tests, the Anglo students scored highest with no statistically different scores observed between Hispanic and Negro students on these two sub-tests. These results were reported for attitudes toward others and toward self. It should be noted that these data reflect attitudinal change not necessarily acquisition of knowledge.

WGG and MLH

Carpenter, L. P., and Dinah Rank. The Treatment of Minorities:
A Survey of Textbooks Used in Missouri High Schools.
Jefferson City, Mo.: Missouri Commission on Human Rights,
December, 1968. (mimeo) 60 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The Missouri Commission on Human Rights prepared this report on the treatment of minorities in textbooks to aid local boards of education in the selection of adequate textbooks. In August 1967 a questionnaire went out under the auspices of the Commission to every school district in the state. The districts were asked to identify textbooks used to teach junior and senior high U.S. history, world history, and social studies. The report reviews 50 textbooks reported used in 5 or more school districts, supplemented by titles of textbooks that had been recently filed with the state.

Criteria were developed from the seeming consensus of previous reports and other experts in the field, supplemented by recognition of changes in recent books' coverage and treatment of racial issues. Standards previously suggested by a distinguished group of college historians at one university served as a source of criteria for American history texts. Comments about the treatment of other minorities supplemented that source, facilitating development of criteria for government and social problems textbooks. Criteria used in examining world history and world geography textbooks included: (1) "race" as a biological and cultural variable; (2) both good and bad effects of European conquest and colonialism; and (3) full and fair treatment of non-Western cultures. The three-category rating included: "adequate," fair and inclusive in treating of racial issues; "less-than-adequate," generally fair, but omitting or minimizing important topics; and "inadequate," poor in coverage.

Only 2 of the 16 American history texts received a rating of "adequate." Three were rated as "less-than-adequate" and 11 "inadequate." Three world history and geography texts were judged "adequate," 7 "less-than-adequate," and 4 "inadequate." Only 2 government and social problems texts received "adequate," one "less-than-adequate," and 11 "inadequate." Missouri state history, sociology, psychology, and social living textbooks were rated none "adequate," one "less-than-adequate," and 5 "inadequate."

The report summary lists 4 glaring violations of general criteria: lack of pertinent information about minorities; failure to integrate materials: failure to deal frankly with dilemmas in the American value system; and use of stereotypes, lack of attention to minority contributions, and violations of factuality.

Five common flaws of American history textbooks generally involved inadequate treatment due to omissions. Two of the three common flaws detected in government and social problems textbooks revolve around inadequate treatment of discrimination besides the treatment of civil rights legislation as an end in itself. Common flaws in world history and geography textbooks include a concentration of attention on whites and colonists with less space devoted to non-Western peoples. Multi-racial cultures were reportedly generally ignored.

LMS

Cheyney, Arnold B., "Curricular Methods Used by Outstanding Teachers of Culturally Disadvantaged Elementary School Children," Journal of Negro Education, vol. 35, Spring, 1966, pp. 174-177.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard, impressionistic
ANALYSIS: vague
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

Fifty teachers considered outstanding in their work with culturally disadvantaged elementary pupils were asked to report methods that successfully attract their pupils to the satisfactions found in learning. Superintendents, supervisors and elementary principals in large midwestern cities recommended these teachers.

In spite of considerable variety in methods, approaches to teaching social studies definitely polarize, reports Cheyney. A null hypothesis stated that there is no significant preference expressed for the textbook method over the unit-project method. Analysis of the interview data indicated that the null hypothesis held, with no significant preference for either method. Primary teachers divided evenly, but middle-grades teachers preferred the unit-project 18 to 10.

Preference for the textbook method, some teachers said, is necessitated by such extenuating circumstances as lack of library facilities, scarcity of materials, high student mobility, and need for a more directive approach. Unit method advocates noted facilitation of a greater variety of books plus individualization and self-identification, more content covered, and a greater amount of content retained by pupils over a longer period.

The 2 most frequently mentioned devices for developing interest in unfamiliar areas were pictures and audio-visual aids. Discussion techniques and study (field trips) were also mentioned.

Teachers noted the need to develop an adequate experiential background regarding culturally disadvantaged children and the necessity of satisfying such physical needs as hunger before approaching academic needs. Some teachers reported little difficulty in obtaining student interest in science and social studies. Elaborating on this point, one teacher said that the students were fascinated by the study of the world and the continents.

Grouping methods varied. Forty percent utilized 3 reading groups, and it was implied that more would have except for administrative policy. Grouping in social studies was not specifically identified.

Apparent limitations of the report include: (1) a small sample limited to one geographical area; (2) a method of teacher selection, while done by experts, that is subjective; (3) no control group; and (4) considerable dependence on statements of individual teachers' preferences rather than concentration on consensus among the teachers.

LMS

Davies, Walter L. A Comparative Study of the Performance of Pupils from Low, High and Economically Diversified Socio-Economic Areas on Test Items from a Social Studies Achievement Battery. Lawrence, Kan.: University of Kansas, 1967. (dissertation) 103 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Davies undertook a status study comparing the scores of groups of students classified as low, high, and diversified socio-economically. The 488 9th-grade subjects were enrolled in 3 Kansas City, Kansas junior high schools and had attended one of 17 feeder elementary schools for at least 3 years continuously prior to entering a junior high (disqualifying from 1/4 to 1/3 of 9th graders). Intended to control for type and mode of instruction and other factors, this may have disqualified a number of students whose families were upwardly mobile in socio-economic, or geographic terms. Classification by socio-economic level was based upon economic designation of each elementary school area, not individual student assignment according to parental occupation, income, or other characteristics.

The test used was Tests of Academic Progress: Social Studies Battery (65 items). The researcher classified questions 2 ways: (1) subject area (as designated by test author)--American government, American history, world history, economics, sociology, geography, and study skills; (2) cognitively (according to the researcher's understudying of Bloom's taxonomy)--knowledge, application, and judgment. Davies provides no validity check for classifying items.

Findings are reported in terms of percent means; refined statistical analysis is not applied. Findings include: (1) in each of the 3 taxonomic classifications, the high-income area school scored highest, followed in order by economically diversified and low-income groups. The individual school test results from highest to lowest percent mean scores were: high-income area--application, judgment, knowledge; diversified--knowledge, judgment, application; low--knowledge, judgment, application. Hence, the pattern was similar for the diversified and low groups although the mean was higher for the diversified group. Regarding subject matter classifications Davies found that the high-income group scored highest in 6 of 7 classifications (exception--diversified group scores highest in sociology). Next in order came the diversified and finally the low-income area schools. Students did not necessarily score highest on the social science items related to previous instruction. Variability was noted in scoring patterns among and within the 3 groups.

Davies' "most significant...discovery" was that students from "low-income area elementary schools, who continued their education at a low-income area junior high school, score considerably lower on a social studies...achievement test than a comparable low-income area elementary group who continued their education in an economically diversified junior high school." Data supplied do not support this inference. Reasons presented for scoring patterns, particularly the success of high-income students with higher cognitive level questions, are mostly speculative. Course instruction at the junior high level did not necessarily result in higher test scores. (Geography scores particularly were low for all 3 groups.) The patterns were mixed, with scores in some subject areas being higher when preceded by instruction, others when no junior high instruction preceded.

DOS

Dooley, Bobby Joe. A Comparison of Pupil Test Performance on Two Units in Elementary Economics with a Select Sample of Disadvantaged Children. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1968. (dissertation) 116 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Dooley attempted to determine whether inductive or deductive materials used by elementary school teachers to teach economic concepts at the 4th-grade level would result in significantly different gains. He used commercially available materials for the study. Elementary School Economics I by German and others (William Rader, Industrial Relations Center, University of Chicago) and Our Working World--Cities at Work, pp. 103-181, by Lawrence Senesh (Science Research Associates), considered a 3rd-grade program by SRA, were used. Dooley's analysis of material indicated the former to be inductive and the latter deductive in presentation. The materials are not directly comparable in content, topics, or emphases, with the Senesh material incorporating other than economic concepts and information.

A student sample of 507 4th-grade students (57% Caucasian, 43% Negro) in 18 classes in predominantly rural central Georgia were selected from schools eligible for Title I funds as a result of low economic status. A majority of the families in the school area were considered below the poverty line. In addition, the Two-Factor Index of Social Positions was administered to estimate positions of individual students, and mean scores corroborated original classification of the sample as economically deprived, although random assignment of students to one of the two experimental groups resulted in higher proportion of lower status students to the Senesh unit. An evaluation instrument was developed and pilot tested on a separate sample of students studying economics at the same grade level. Item discrimination data were used to select 55 items for the final form and the device met tests of validity and reliability. This instrument was used both for pre- and post-testing. The experimental treatment consisted of daily 40-minute periods of instruction for 28 days. Teachers received a single 2-hour period of in-service introduction to the materials. A local Test of Basic Economics was administered to participating teachers to determine their level of achievement. Local school system curriculum directors rated the teachers' skills on an

institutional Teacher Rating Scale. Teacher ratings were used in assignment of teachers to avoid concentration of low-rated teachers to the same experimental group.

Dooley used covariance statistical techniques. Analysis centered on effects of sex, race, and program. Other considered variables included: students' language, non-language and total IQ and social index; teachers' race, sex, education, and achievement on an economics test and on attitude and skill rating.

Findings included: (1) sex was not a significant factor in achievement; (2) race was a significant factor with Negro students showing greater gains than whites; (3) experimental materials had a significant effect on achievement with those using the Rader unit significantly outscoring those using Senesh material; (4) teachers' skills and knowledge were significant factors, affecting positively actual student performance on the Senesh unit. (Dooley infers that since Negro teachers with Negro students had previously received little help or attention from consultants or others, the Hawthorne effect may have operated). He concludes that, since the Rader material was inductive and the Senesh material deductive, inductive strategies may be more applicable to the teaching of disadvantaged students. However, the 2 units of material are not precisely equivalent in content emphases, and a disproportionately larger number of lower-status students used the Senesh materials.

DOS

Dow, Peter B., dir. Man: A Course of Study: A Brief Review of Evaluation Findings. Cambridge, Mass.: Evaluation Program, Social Studies Education Development Center, March, 1969. (mimeo) 9 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained,
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard, impressionistic
ANALYSIS: refined, incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

After earlier tryout and revision, a one-year anthropology-oriented course was tried in 80 schools in 14 school systems across the country. More than 2,100 students in 123 classrooms, from both inner-city and suburban schools, were involved in the research. About 4% of students were 5th graders, 58% 5th, 29% 6th, and 10% in ungraded classes. No control groups were reported.

Data gathering techniques included testing, interviewing, and observation of classes. A pre- and post-test contained multiple choice and open-ended items on information, concepts, and attitudes. Also, students completed three checklists, objective in format, on classroom environment, student involvement and participation, various media, their attitudes, and learning styles. Nearly 100 students in 18 classrooms in Boston, Newton, Philadelphia, Washington, and West Hartford were interviewed, some several times during the year. Selected teachers reacted through interviews at both the beginning and the end of the year. More than 50% of the experimental teachers involved also completed questionnaires. The final phase of research involved 60 observations in 22 classrooms taught by 4 men and 14 women. This averages 3.67 observations per teacher and slightly fewer than 3 per class.

EDC reported significantly positive gains from pre- to post-tests. In the total sample, students averaged doubling their knowledge of animal behavior and ecological conepts and gained in reasoning ability. Despite great variations in individual students' information levels in each grade, the considerable learning from the course was mostly not associated with grade level. "Individual differences in (test) gains were (also) not associated with students' intelligence or previous knowledge of the area" (subject matter). Inner-city students with mostly poor academic backgrounds and records reportedly gained in learning and mastery over concepts at as great a rate as those whose beginning positions were much stronger. The report includes interpretations and conclusions but omits detailed data and statistical procedures.

The nature and extent of teacher training for the project are not reported. Teaching the course apparently resulted in observable teacher change from the beginning to the end of the course. No observational or analytical schema or device used for recording classroom impressions is indicated. Findings were: (1) teachers' physical movement around the classroom increased considerably ("much movement category" increased from 25% to 50%); (2) teachers moved physically closer to the students (decrease from 90% to 67% in "apart from students"); (3) display of ire by teachers sometime during class decreased from nearly half of the teachers to only 8%; (4) teachers talked less as the course proceeded (62% in early observations and 23% in later observations talked more than half the time); and (5) student dialogue increased (teacher-to-student exchanges decreased from 46% to 15% while student-to-teacher and student-to-student exchanges increased from 31% to 54%).

Attitudes of both students and teachers toward the course were favorable. A majority of the students indicated they learned most from the films and booklets (73%), that learning was easiest through the films (76%), and that to get good marks they had to take part in class discussions (65%). Interviewed students expressed a very definite preference for small group discussions as the major activity in class sessions (consistent with EDC suggestions to teachers). No significant differences were reported relative to inner-city or suburban students attitudinal responses to various course components such as readings, films, and pedagogy. Teachers reported the course motivating for the less able students, with materials appropriate for all ability levels and particularly effective in a heterogeneous situation. Further, the course was frequently related to other subjects (more than half of the teachers indicated they related the EDC work to science, 100% to various language arts activities, and about 25% to art).

EDC concluded that, despite remaining problems, the course was essentially well conceived and organized. Noteworthy is the use of multimedia throughout the course to reinforce key ideas. Conceptualization was developed through specific examples often involving sight, sound, and touch. For inner-city youngsters, films seemed particularly effective, enabling students to "see what I'm talking about." They showed more motivation to read the course booklets than traditional classroom texts. Multimedia reduced pressure on students to obtain all or most information via reading.

The major learning problems remaining in the course center on concept mastery. Such objectives as the ability "to grasp the uniquely human quality of language," and "to identify correctly innate versus learned behaviors in animals and humans," remained difficult for students. Lack of teacher preparation, especially background in the behavioral social sciences, posed a major problem. Teachers first had to learn content and then a new pedagogy, or at least some pedagogical approaches for the course. Conveying of information to students had to give way to student-teacher and student-student interaction. EDC concluded that intensive teacher education is an essential component of the course. Revision and additional preparation of teacher guides and materials also seemed to be required.

DOS

Edgar, Robert W. The Impact on Learning and Retention of Specially
Developed History Materials for Culturally Deprived Children:
An Exploratory Study. New York, N.Y.: Queens College, City
University of New York, 1966. (mimeo) ERIC ED 010 004.
46 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Robert Edgar and Carl Auria conducted a Cooperative Research Small Contact experimental project in association with Project Bridge in Flushing, New York. It involved American history for 8th-grade disadvantaged Negro and Puerto Rican students (largely Negro). It was hypothesized that these students would learn and retain more and have more interest in the American Civil War period when material on Negroes' role was included; further, that the fiction and biography more than the text-like material would increase learning and interest.

Research lacked randomization, test data for a substantial proportion of students sometimes absent, adequate control of such variables as teaching procedures, and satisfactory validity of data regarding students "interest." Pre-, post-, and delayed-retention (6 months) tests were given. Six weeks' instruction in 12 classes in 2 schools centered on the pre-Civil War, Civil War, and Reconstruction period. Test data are reported on 177 students. Sex distribution, IQ, and other factors seem matched. The sample included only the middle of 3 ability levels in the schools; it had an Otis IQ median of just under 90. The 3 tested groups were: textbook (control), a text and pamphlet (enrichment), and biography-fiction (indicated materials--no text).

Weekly workshop sessions familiarized the 12 teachers with aims, nature, and procedures of project, and they developed 25 lesson plans and materials including tests and a study or workbook for students. Researchers felt that 15 sessions, held before, during, and after the treatment, were insufficient in time.

Research indicated no significant differences among the 3 groups in retention, although some immediate post-test gains favored 2 experimental groups, particularly biography-fiction. Lack of retention was unexplained but attributed possibly to uncontrolled instruction after the treatment between post- and retention tests. Noteworthy is that experimental groups did as well on a generally traditional knowledge-comprehension level test. Teacher and pupil reactions (subjectively analyzed) appeared positive (halo effect?), but not so much for Puerto Rican as Negro students. Selective perception seemed to be a factor. Note also that students read at least one complete book in the biography-fiction group. Recommended were replicating study with Negro and white students of more varied socio-economic backgrounds, extended teacher preparation, and use of a workshop as in-service education program with academic graduate credit.

DOS

Estes, Jack Richard. Friendship Patterns and Attitudes Toward the United States Bill of Rights. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, 1966. (dissertation). 202 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Estes' study utilizes what he labels a "case-study" approach in comparison to a traditional approach to teach about principles involved in the U.S. Bill of Rights. His case-study procedure actually involves simulation and role-playing of Supreme Court decision-making as well as reading, analysis and discussion of selected key-court decisions. The study involved 424 12th-grade students in 13 classes grouped in both college and non-college preparatory civics classes taught by 3 teachers over a period of 4 weeks in a small California city. The researcher himself taught the 5 experimental classes, a potential problem as well as advantage in experimental research. While randomization of subjects is claimed, it is rudimentary (alphabetical within college or non-college preparatory but apparently involving all seniors--424 students).

The researcher used 4 questionnaires. The first solicited individual data about students. The second asked for most liked and disliked students among their 12th-grade peers from whom a group of 11 "social isolates" were identified (this odd number was probably selected to "avoid" having a proportionately higher number of minority group members in the sample--4 of 20 were reduced to one of 11). The third, purportedly a tolerance measure, listed all 424 seniors and asked for ratings or preferences on a 5-point scale ("would like this person's company in most all situations;" "rarely like his company and would take steps to avoid him"). The fourth questionnaire was an attitude inventory (5-point scale) to measure acceptance-rejection of Bill of Rights principles.

Teaching procedures and materials for a control group followed traditional patterns and included the use of a textbook, films, and recordings, discussions, and various written assignments. Experimental classes also used textbooks and follow-up discussion, but about half of the 4 weeks were devoted to case studies including simulation and role-playing of Supreme Court decision-making and comparison of student decisions with actual Supreme Court decisions. The selected cases dealt with search and seizure, freedom of press, speech and association, and due process of law. The experimental teacher (the researcher) attempted to engender student emotional involvement throughout the case-study treatment.

Reported findings were favorable. The case-study groups showed significantly higher tolerance toward racial and religious minorities and "social isolates" and agreement with the Bill of Rights principles. Other findings included: (1) highly religious students desplayed the lowest degree of tolerance and least agreement with Bill of Rights principles although not at a statistically significant level; (2) children whose fathers were white-collar workers or who had attended college scored significantly higher on both tolerance and Bill of Rights scales; and (3) racial minorities scored significantly lower on both tolerance and Bill of Rights scales than did racial majorities.

Several cautions appear pertinent. No attempt was made to compare college and non-college preparatory students in either control or experimental groups. The experimental teacher taught none of the control classes, thus leaving largely uncontrolled, if realistic, the varying teacher effects. The sample of social minorities was heavily Mexican-American and was not representative of racial minorities of the U.S. in general. In fact, the minority included "Somoans," "Orientals," Portuguese," Hawaiian," "Thai," "Indian," and "Puerto Rican." The meaning of "race" is unclear. (Why, for example, are the Portuguese listed as a racial minority--what about Spanish, Italian, and other nationalities?) Other problems hinge around the lack of a pre-treatment ("since randomization was not complete") and a delayed post-test to measure the retention of the purported differences in attitudes.

With regard to the disadvantaged, the research is only somewhat applicable. The positive results (although questionable) do support the use of cases, simulation, and role-playing for increasing tolerance of students toward others and acceptance of Bill of Rights principles. The study also indicates significantly lower tolerance and acceptance of Bill of Rights principles among students who are likely to be disadvantaged (non-college fathers, blue-collar working fathers and racial minority students). But we cannot tell whether gains were greater or lesser among these than among other groups.

DOS

Farran, Dale C., "Competition and Learning for Underachievers" in Simulation Games in Learning, edited by Sarane S. Boocock and E.O. Schild. Beverely Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, Inc., 1969, pp. 191-203.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

The researcher reports on the use of 3 games--Consumer, Life Career, and the Legislative Game--with 123 8th-grade underachievers (but average or above in potential) at the North Carolina Advancement School. The boys' mean reading and arithmetic levels were 6th grade, IQ scores were average (around 100) and scholastic attitude at the 25th percentile. Generally, boys in the school were disinterested and unsuccessful in their regular school situations and are referred to the advancement school for special help.

The reported test data in this study are relative to differences in group versus individual competition in gaming. No attempt was made to compare gaming with any other teaching procedure, although subjective comparisons are reported. Two tests were developed to measure content learned from the games: Game Knowledge and Applicability. In addition, the California Study Methods Survey was administered to measure changes in attitudes toward learning. Data are reported for the Life Career and Consumer games only. No information is given on validity and reliability of the test instruments. In contrast to the original hypothesis, it was found that students engaged in individual competition learned significantly (beyond the .01 level) more than those students engaged in inter-group competition. Attitudes toward learning were not significantly different. The researcher concluded that when these formerly unsuccessful students achieved immediate personal success they achieved status directly and were thus more highly motivated than when status was "shared" with a group or direct success delayed or diffused.

The impressions and subjective evaluations of the teaching staff and students reported by Farran are pointed and pertinent. He reports that games captured the underachievers' interest and permitted them to experience content directly. The boys frequently attributed more learning to a game than it could have possibly taught them. What apparently games did was to serve as a catalyst and organizing medium that brought together previously unrelated information in a meaningful way. In addition to teaching information, games taught strategic decision-making, relational thinking, and planning.

Farran also reports that, with underachievers and students who have a history of academic failure, once success is achieved in a game by working out a particular winning strategy for making decisions, they resist making any changes and resent any interference with the strategy. If, by chance, events (drawing a "negative" card) should ruin the favored strategy, the students may withdraw and refuse to play the game. This problem became so severe that, to control the problem, teams of 2 were established and individual play discontinued.

Other cautions in the use of academic games are suggested. Limit the number of underachievers playing a particular game to 12 to 15 players at a time. Teachers found a great deal of individual attention was required for each of the students, particularly in the early stages. In a small group, players eventually carried on the game with little further help, but in large groups students never reached this stage and a great deal of guidance was always required regardless of how much experience students had with games. The Advancement School found 3 instructors or game administrators were essential in any session involving over 20 students. This has far-reaching implications for the widespread use of games with underachievers in typical-size classes.

Another reported problem was the need for mechanized refinement of games (especially noted with Life Career) to involve the students immediately and continuously in problem-solving situations and to move smoothly and rapidly from one point to the next.

DOS

Fisher, Frank L. The Influences of Reading and Discussion on the Attitudes of Fifth Graders Toward American Indians. Berkeley, Calif.; University of California. 1965. (dissertation) 226 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

While the major focus of this study is impact of reading and follow-up discussions on students' attitudes as well as knowledge, the effects of other variables--IQ, reading achievement, race, socio-economic status and sex--are also considered. This experimental study appears well-conceived and executed. The researcher designed his own combined attitude inventory-information measure since an appropriate instrument was unavailable. Efforts to assure both validity and reliability appear fairly extensive and adequate. The experimenter did not participate in the instruction and participating teachers did not have access to the pre-test, post-test instrument until after completion of the experiment. A single test instrument (Xerox copy is available) containing 16 attitude and 18 information items plus a racial--social distance measure was used.

The students involved in the study were 5th graders in 6 different public schools in Berkeley. This population of 437 consisted of approximately 38% Negro, 45% Caucasian, and 16% Oriental students. Six classes were assigned to each (high, middle, low) socio-economic group on the basis of an earlier school survey. Fisher's classification of students was based on their geographic origin rather than on any individual criterion measure or biographical data. This appears to be the weakest part of the study and casts some question on findings related to socio-economic status.

In the experiment students were assigned to one of three groups--Reading, Reading-and-Discussion, or Control. The experimental instruction involved reading or reading and discussion of 6 carefully chosen selections over a period of 3 weeks. The criteria used in selection of the readings were (1) it must be "good" children's literature, (2) it could not be propaganda, (3) Indians are portrayed as "human," (4) variety exists in the total group of readings regarding form, place, time and kinds of Indians, (5) variety of reading levels, but not beyond 5th-6th grade level. (A list of stories is available.) Teachers were provided with discussion hints and instructions for the 3 weeks of experimentation.

Data analysis of pre- and post-tests indicated significant positive changes in attitudes of (1) reading groups compared to control groups, (2) reading and discussion groups compared to control

groups, and (3) reading-and-discussion groups compared to reading-only groups. While the findings were statistically significant (.05 level) the amount of numerical change was not great, and small but consistent gains were also recorded for the control groups indicating uncontrolled factors were causing change.

Fisher reports mixed findings in correlating information gain and attitude change. Favorable findings were evident for the reading-and-discussion group, but not for reading-only groups where attitude change notably occurred beyond the level of information gain. Reading alone had a significant effect on attitudes. Cognitive change apparently required reading and discussion.

Reading, as compared to reading and discussion, is apparently at least somewhat related to sex as a variable. While Fisher reports that race is not a statistically significant factor even when compared within races, numerically, reading alone produced more attitude change in girls than boys and in contrast reading followed by discussion produced greater attitude change in boys. This trend was most marked between Negro boys and girls.

Findings involving race and socio-economic status are mixed. In the reading-and-discussion group as well as the control group (but not the reading-only group) significant positive attitude changes were noted among upper socio-economic students composed almost exclusively of Caucasian boys and girls as compared to lower socio-economic students composed almost exclusively of Negro boys and girls. But in the reading-only group of the middle socio-economic area in which all 3 racial groups were represented, a positive attitude change was significantly greater among Negroes than Caucasians. Overall, the positive change in attitudes toward the American Indians was greatest among the middle socio-economic group in which all 3 racial groups were represented. Thus, movement up the socio-economic ladder into the middle class appears to bring more potential for favorable attitude change toward a minority group for Negroes than for Caucasians.

Other findings were surprising: there was no significant relationship between IQ score and attitude change, or between reading achievement and attitude change. This latter is especially interesting in a reading study and appears to indicate that learning in the affective domain is only minimally, if at all, affected by a students' reading ability, providing it is not severely limited, and the criteria for selecting reading material are similar to those used in this study.

DOS

Foerster, Leona M. The Development of Time Sense and Chronology of Culturally Disadvantaged Children. Tucson, Ariz.: University of Arizona, 1968. (dissertation) 159 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This researcher aimed to ascertain whether culturally disadvantaged 6th graders differ from non-disadvantaged in performance on a test of time and chronological sense.

Sample included 395 6th graders, total enrollment of 5 elementary schools in one school district in Tucson, Arizona. Three of the schools were designated as receiving ESEA Title I funds for economically deprived; the other 2 schools were not.

Intelligence testing was by verbal and non-verbal components of the Lorge-Thorndike Test. Researcher constructed a Test of Time Sense and Chronology designed to measure "understanding" (telling time by clock and calendar), knowledge of definite and indefinite expressions of time, ability to place events in chronological order, and skill in using time lines "related to self as well as historical eras." Test content was based on pertinent material in state-adopted middle-grades textbooks in social studies. "Objectives" (content areas) for test were developed, using Bloom and Krathwohl's Taxonomy as a guide, but with uneven application to aspects of learning tested. 87 items were tried on a sample of 48 students. Test revision cut number of items to 50 on basis of favored moderate difficulty and "validity" (high discrimination). Revised test had reliability (Kuder-Richardson) of .81 and median discrimination index (Garrett) of .56. The revised test was administered to full sample during the spring.

Using Pearson product-moment correlations, and T-tests for statistical significance, the researcher found:
(1) Culturally disadvantaged pupils differ extremely (beyond the .05 level) in intelligence and in time and chronological sense from the advantaged.
(2) Verbal IQ is more closely related to time and chronological sense of non-disadvantaged than of disadvantaged (except higher relationship for disadvantaged on time sub-test of "skills and abilities.")
(3) There is no significant difference between verbal and non-verbal IQ's of the disadvantaged in relation to time and chronological sense.

(4) Intercorrelations of scores on sub-tests (of time and chronological sense) were all significant for advantaged; same for disadvantaged (except for correlations between comprehension and application).
(5) Intercorrelations among all variables (by Fisher's compared with normal curve) are inconclusively different between advantaged and disadvantaged students.

The researcher's statements of implications, reinterpreted by this abstractor, point toward:
(1) Not all 6th graders have developed the same sense of and skill with concepts and skill with time and chronology.
(2) Teaching of concepts of time and chronology should be sequenced through the elementary school years.
(3) Special programs, perhaps stressing visual aids, should be provided for students who lag in developing a sense of time and chronology.
(4) The reputed here-and-now orientation of many disadvantaged students suggests the importance of introductory history more closely related to the present than may be necessary for advantaged students.
(5) The highly verbal nature of time and chronological concepts, like many other elements of social studies reportedly are, implies possible needed conversion to, or substitution of, less verbal elements if disadvantaged students are to succeed in learning.

This reviewer suggests the following limitations:
(1) The concepts tested include immediate (clock) time and chronological (historical) time, somewhat indiscriminately undistinguished.
(2) The sample of students is quite limited in geographical locale and cultural attributes. Doubtless there were some advantaged students in the disadvantaged schools and some disadvantaged students in the advantaged schools. Further, "the disadvantaged" are not specifically described beyond the general criterion used.
(3) Apparently the researcher failed to develop a "culture-free" test as was her intent. The test contained minimal and incidental visual material. However, the researcher administered the test to all students, reading aloud each item as displayed on a screen, thus controlling the factor of reading as distinct from aural comprehension.
(4) The test has questionable content validity, seemingly wholly dependent on the researcher's judgment of relationship between the test and official textbook content (which may itself be a questionable criterion or source).

JCM

Gast, David Karl. Characteristics and Concepts of Minority Americans in Contemporary Children's Fictional Literature. Tempe, Ariz.: Arizona State University, 1965. (dissertation) 196 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: description
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

The major findings of this study are as follows: (1) Stereotypes of the minority groups (present day American Indians, Chinese, Japanese, Negroes, and Spanish-Americans) exist in children's fictional literature; a majority of these stereotypes were positive and complimentary. (2) Treatment of minority Americans in recent children's fictional literature dignifies differences in race, creed and custom of minority people. (3) Treatment of minority Americans in recent literature emphasizes similarities rather than differences between minority and majority Americans with regard to behavior patterns, attitudes and values.

These 3 major findings served as hypotheses tested by content analysis techniques. The purpose of the study was to determine whether children's fictional literature stereotypes minority Americans or slights their contribution to the American culture.

Published content analysis instruments were revised by the researcher. They were applied to all children's fiction published between 1945 and 1962 for kindergarten through 8th-grade levels, about present day American minority groups, listed in standard catalogues. They were designed to (1) reveal characteristics (as age, and social and economic status) of minority group characters, and (2) to discover minority group stereotypes. Three specialists in children's literature worked together analyzing the works of fiction. The resulting identification was then compared with selected studies of minority groups in adult literature and school textbooks to test hypotheses 2 and 3. This analysis revealed (1) children's fiction evidenced virtually no negative stereotypes of minorities while magazine fiction and textbooks contained noncomplimentary stereotypes. (2) Children's fiction presented more up-to-date treatment of minorities than did school texts published during the same period. (3) Children's fiction portrayed more intergroup and interracial cooperation and equality. (4) Minority Americans were not shown as problem-makers for the dominant culture in the children's fiction as they were in the textbook studies. (5) The children's fiction portrayed minorities as aspiring to middle-class values and standards of living while the textbook studies indicated that minority groups had lower socio-economic standards and goals.

Georgeoff, P. John. The Elementary Curriculum as a Factor in Racial Understanding. 2 vols. Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.: Bureau of Research, U.S. Office of Education. December, 1967. (mimeo) ERIC ED 019 392. 542 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to determine the effect, if any, a unit study of American Negro History has upon the self-concept of 4th graders in integrated classrooms. Specific objectives of the study were: (1) to test for changes in self-concept of Negro pupils, (2) to test for changes in self-concept of Caucasian pupils, and (3) to determine the influence of community experiences upon children's self-concepts.

This investigation involved 26 integrated classes of 4th-grade children in the public school system of Gary, Indiana. Classes were equated for race, IQ, achievement, and socio-economic status, and divided into 3 groups.

Group A - 10 classes of Negro and white children from the same neighborhood
Group B - 9 classes of Negro and white children from different neighborhoods
Group C - 7 classes of Negro and white children from the same neighborhood (the control group)

The experimental unit met a Gary school requirement for the teaching of Negro history in the 4th grade. In-service teacher workshops were held 4 times over a 3-month period during which the participating teachers actively revised the proposed course content, instructional materials, and teaching emphases. The treatment itself appeared to be left up to the individual teacher although certain guiding procedures were established. A list of specific cognitive objectives were provided along with a list of readings (biographic mainly), recommended films, filmstrips, tapes, and other media. There was no indication how much actual class discussion took place although this was one of the most encouraged procedures. No evidence of how classes were actually conducted was reported.

The primary instruments used in the study were a Test of Factual Knowledge on Negro History and Culture (constructed for this study), the Piers-Harris Self-Concept Scale, and a Sociometric Device. Analyses of variance for pre-test and post-test scores indicated significant gains for both experimental groups on the Test of Factual Knowledge. An analysis of performance by race showed that Negroes and whites scored significantly higher in experimental groups than in the control groups. All gains were beyond the .01 level of confidence. A rough comparison of adjusted mean scores (by the abstractor) revealed no apparent difference between scores of Negroes and whites. However, it was found that the scores of Group B were significantly higher (beyond the .01 level of confidence) than those of Group A. The researcher attributed this unexpected finding to the Negro teachers of Group A, teachers who revealed in selected interviews that they were somewhat reluctant to be forceful in their teaching for fear of white hostility. Group B was taught mainly by white teachers who revealed no special concern over teaching this subject to integrated classes.

The data on the Piers-Harris Self Concept Scale pre-test and post-test were analyzed for significant differences by means of co-variance. Significant gains beyond the .05 level were found for the children of Group A, for both Negro and white children. No significant differences were found for Group B. According to Georgeoff, "The fact that the self-concept of the white children in the group also improved significantly tends to indicate that certain inter-racial factors are operative here which might be more closely related to the way the children in this group view themselves as a whole rather than to any elements of race."

On the Sociometric Device, Group B showed a significantly positive gain (beyond the .05 level) in the "Study-Together" category, meaning that an interracial preference had resulted from the study unit. No significant differences in Group A suggest that attitudes may have been already fixed, probably as a result of the experiences of living in an integrated neighborhood.

Although this unit was begun the second week of January 1967, there was no indicated or implied termination date. The abstractor suspects that it ran a full quarter or semester.

WGG

Gibboney, Richard A. An Experiment to Determine the Relationship Between Socio-Economic Status and Achievement in the Social Studies. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1957. (dissertation) 222 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The researcher taught 2 6th-grade classes (75 students) in 2 different schools (Davidson County, Tennessee) a 6-week social studies unit on Mexico. One group was comprised of lower socio-economic status students with a mean IQ of 96 (on the Lorge-Thorndike Test) and the other of middle-class students with a mean IQ of 116. The determination of status was based on individual scores on The American Home Scale and Warner's Index of Status Characteristics. The classes received the same materials and treatment by the same teacher. Gibboney constructed his own achievement test for the unit and controlled for reliability. With the intelligence factor controlled, the middle-class students scored significantly higher gains on the achievement test (by analysis of co-variance).

Additionally, the researcher investigated the relationship of interest and socio-economic status, personal adjustment and socio-economic status, and attitude change toward Mexicans. The first was measured by What I Like To Do interest inventory, the second by the SRA Junior Inventory, and the latter by a Mexican attitude inventory designed by the researcher. The first 2 were administered during the course of the unit, the latter was administered as a pre- and post-test. No significant differences appeared in social studies, music, and manual arts interests, but they were evident in science and home arts. Conclusions regarding personal adjustment and socio-economic status could not be drawn from the data. With regard to attitude change, Gibboney found no significant change among the middle-status students but significant negative change (rejection of Mexicans) among lower-status students. Reasons are unclear, but the researcher suggests that one group already had positive attitudes and that the lower status students learned "facts" that gave rise to negative feelings where no attitudes had previously existed.

DOS

Goff, Regina. The Teaching of Negro History in the Public Schools of the Nation. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, February, 1969. (mimeo) 18 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale implied
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: general
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

As a result of a survey conducted among 50 states, the District of Columbia, and selected major cities (recommended by state departments of education), the U.S. Office of Education found that 55% of the states had some type of material regarding Negro history available to teachers. An additional 15% were planning or in process of producing materials. No consistent patterns in kinds of material were evident, but most frequently available was a bibliography (some included books, periodicals and audiovisual listings). About 20% of reporting states had available pertinent teacher guides, a similar number had available audio-visual materials, and 2 provided educational television programs; no state provided a formal syllabus course-of-study, leaving it to local districts to produce these. Six states required or strongly recommended the inclusion of Negro history in social studies. Usually Negro history was integrated into regular social studies; however, separate courses were sometimes offered in grade 12.

DOS

Gold, Ben K. Project Summer '67, An Experimental Program for Educationally Disadvantaged Youth-- An Evaluation. Los Angeles, Calif.: Los Angeles City College, January, 1968. (mimeo) ERIC ED 018 180. 35 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

Project Summer '67 was a 6-week experimental course of study for 3 groups of disadvantaged students: (1) 50 high school students classified as culturally disadvantaged (poor school records, but not mentally retarded), (2) 51 high school students bilingually disadvantaged, and (3) 51 high school graduates who had not achieved a minimum C-average during their first year in college. All 3 groups enrolled in 2 experimental courses, had tutorial sessions, and attended cultural events. Group 1 was enrolled in "the World of Words," a communications course, and "The World of an Individual," a social science course. Group 2 enrolled in the same courses restructured to meet the linguistic needs of these bilingual students. Group 3 was enrolled in "The World of the Individual" and "Man and Society," another social science course. "The World of the Individual" stressed self-identity, self-development, and self-improvement. "Man and Society" stressed the need for human cooperation, in meeting common needs of society, as well as the nature of cultural change and man's role in it.

All students in the experiment took the SCAT prior to the summer course study. On this test, Groups 1 and 2 scored nearly the same (between the 10th and 15th percentiles of the national freshman norms); however, Group 3 scored in the 32nd percentile (same norms). The SRA Non-Verbal Test also prior to the summer course study, evidenced greater differences: Group 1 scored in the 43rd percentile; Group 2, the 66th percentile; and Group 3, the 77th percentile, based on the national norms for 17-year-olds and older.

A "Meaning of Words Inventory" was used as a pre- and post-test measure for attitudinal change. The experimental study brought about a significantly positive change (beyond the .001 level).

Vocabulary (California Reading Test Vocabulary Section) and Reading (SRA Reading for Understanding Placement Test) tests were administered to all students pre- and post-experiment. All 3 groups showed improvement in both vocabulary and reading, but none of these differences were found to be significant statistically.

Attendance throughout the course of study was reported good, based on group averages of (1)--84%, (2)--74%, (3)--90%. A post-experiment questionnaire, given to determine students' reactions to the study, revealed generally favorable and positive feedback.

Limitations included the absence of a control group, and the wide number of variables introduced by the experimenter.

WGG

Gornick, Richard. A Study of the Relationship Between a Conceptual Framework and the Transference of Learning in the Social Studies. Detroit, Mich.: Wayne State University, 1967. (dissertation) 172 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Gornick eclectically identified what he labeled as 30 concepts, 5 from each of 6 social sciences, to become the foci for 4th- and 6th-grade social studies programs. These "concepts" are mostly generalizations but also include some value statements. Two experimental and two control classes, with different teachers, engaged in the study. The 2 experimental teachers took part in a weekly in-service meeting for the first 6 months of the school year's experimental instruction. The purpose of this in-service work was to train the teacher to use inductive rather than "traditional" teaching strategies and thus bring about a transformation in the teacher's role. Experimental teachers were encouraged to use a wide variety of teaching techniques including simulation, observation, and analysis. This inductive approach involves 5 phases: (1) preliminary discussion--assessment of student knowledge on topic to be studied; (2) motivational phase--use of wide variety of media and materials; (3) learning experience--phase--more detailed study; (4) culminating activity phase--group reports, discussions; (5) evaluation--simulated situations requiring identification of concepts and resolution of problems.

Test instruments used were the Stanford Social Studies Achievement Battery and a specially-designed situational test to measure transference of concept learning. Validity of the latter was unaccounted for and thus uncertain at best. Reliability is claimed on the basis of a preliminary field-test and item-analysis. Both instruments were used for pre- and post-testing. Analysis of variance treatment was applied to the data.

Gornick reports that on the Stanford battery there was no significant difference between control and experimental groups which, given the aim of the experiment, was a positive finding. The experimental groups covered less content, that is, fewer topics (about half were included and there was no emphasis on mastering factual knowledge). On the situational or transference test, there was a highly significant relative difference in favor of the experimental group. Moreover, students in the lowest 3 levels of Otis IQ scores (85 and under, 86 to 97, and 98 to 114) made the highest gains within the experimental group; and subjective impressions supported the view that the less-able students exhibited a higher level of enthusiasm and motivation. This latter finding has implications for work with disadvantaged students, but this experiment is clearly very limited in scope. Only 4 classes were involved and these from a largely middle-class community with apparently few if any disadvantaged youth. Although disadvantaged youth often show depressed scores on IQ tests, the low-IQ students performed better in Gornick's study. This is worth noting, especially because teachers often argue that only the brighter students can handle an inductive approach. Note, however, that Gornick's "concepts" are a conglomeration of generalizations, principles and value statements.

DOS

Grannis, Joseph C. Case Studies of Children's Thinking About Social Phenomena. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, February 1967. (mimeo) USOE Bureau of Research 5-0215-41. ERIC ED 011 341. 147 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This research proposed to (1) investigate the relationship between concepts a child brings to the learning situation in the social studies and his interpretations of the material of instruction, and (2) explore how a child's thinking in social studies relates to his cognitive development, especially his capacity to organize concepts hierarchically and his ability to use generalizations in interpreting social or natural phenomena. An intensive case-study method was selected as the vehicle for the research because the investogators wanted evidence pertaining to individuals rather than groups. From a 6th-grade class in a predominantly Negro inner-city school, the researchers selected 2 Negro boys from lower middle-class homes.

The class was given 20 hours of carefully pre-planned instruction in various topics of civil law such as liability, initiating a lawsuit, preparation for the defense, trial, and appeal. All members of the class were given a specially-constructed pre-test and post-test covering the content of the unit, a card-sorting exercise called The Society Game, and two oral interviews. The performances of the case-study pupils in classroom activities were tape-recorded and noted. The 2 boys were also interviewed weekly concerning the material covered in class, and then subjected over 3 months to post-testing that included a variety of standard measures of intelligence, personality, and creativity.

As the study progressed, it became increasingly evident to the investigators that the pre-test and post-test instruments were not valid measures of the objectives upon which the study was based. Also it became apparent that the unit of instruction itself was not clearly relatable to the children's preconceptions of law. In other words, the researchers recognized the impracticality of answering questions on the effects of the children's preconceptions on their attainment of knowledge of the law, or the effect on their ability to reason and judge.

Grannis states that the following conclusions may be drawn inductively from the study: (1) the individual characteristics of the children's thinking were more integrated and rigid than supposed, and

(2) there was less inclination to suppose that changes were taking place either in the children's preconceptions or in their reconstruction of knowledge as a result of the unit. A major hypothesis suggested for future investigation is "an individual's style of thinking and his social concepts might be integrated at the level of personality."

With respect to either affective or cognitive differences as a result of the unit, there are no quantitative data provided in the report. The difficulty in developing valid instruments for measuring the higher level cognitive and affective characteristics as well as their interrelatedness is evident in this study. Much of the report is given to Grannis' insightful commentary on the implications he sees for teaching and the areas in need of further research.

WGG

Greene, William W., Jr. Anthropological Teaching in the First and Fourth Grades: A Comparison of Trained and Non-Trained Teachers as Measured by Pupil Test Performance. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1966. (dissertation) 94 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

The study was undertaken to ascertain if (1) a discipline approach to the organization of the subject matter of anthropology was appropriate for young learners and (2) whether specialized training in anthropology was a prerequisite to using the materials developed by the Anthropology Curriculum Project (elementary) at the University of Georgia. The two major hypotheses were: no statistically significant gain in anthropological knowledge by first and fourth-grade pupils as a result of instruction in anthropology as measured by specially constructed pre- and post-tests in anthropology; no statistically significant differences in pupil achievement in anthropology related to the teacher's training in anthropology. Sub-hypotheses related to pupil achievement on the STEP test related to teacher training in anthropology; and pupil performance in anthropology related to level of teacher certification, teaching experience, race of teacher, and teacher's academic achievement in anthropology.

The experimental group consisted of teachers who had two courses in anthropology in a summer institute conducted by the Anthropology Curriculum Project. The control group consisted of teachers who had no training in anthropology. Both groups taught the same unit. The comparison, then, consisted of pupil achievement as a function of being taught by trained as compared with untrained teachers in knowledge of anthropology. There was no non-treatment control group.

The treatment consisted of instruction with materials being developed in the Anthropology Curriculum Project (elementary) at the University of Georgia. The first grade unit consisted of "Concept of Culture: Ethnographic Approach." The treatment for the fourth grade consisted of the unit "Concept of Culture: Comparative Approach." The units utilize three ethnographies--Kazak, Arunta, and American. The "Concept of Culture" is developed in a spiral cycle--the first grade unit emphasizing simple ethnographic description whereas the fourth grade unit is presented at a higher conceptual level, emphasizing cultural universals and variation. The time allotted for the first and fourth grade units was 20 days. In addition to the pupil text, material consisted of teacher background essays and teacher manual.

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Intact classes, all in Georgia, were used for both experimental and control classes. Teacher participation was voluntary. There was no random assignment. In schools from which came trained teachers, efforts were made to find untrained teachers. At the first grade level, there were 12 experimenta classes and 18 control classes; at the fourth, 13 experimental and 16 control. There were 861 first grade children, 355 experimental and 506 control. There were 785 fourth grade children, 374 experimental and 421 control.

The Anderson-Findley version of the Test Scorer and Statistical Analysis Computer Program was used in test analysis. Test reliability was computed by Kuder-Richardson Formula 20. Major hypotheses were computed by product-moment and rank order correlations and by tests of the significance of differences between means, utilizing "students" distribution. The sub-hypotheses were handled by least squares analysis of variance and covariance and F ratios.

Test reliability coefficients for the Anthropology Project Tests were found as follows: Form IA, 79; Form IB, .72; Form 4A, 80; and Form 4B, 84. However, the forms were not of equivalent difficulty. Gains in post-test achievement in anthropology at both the first and fourth grade levels were significant at the .01 level, but the differences in mean gains for experimental and control classes were not significant. There was no significant gain in STEP scores. Pupil gains in Grade 1 and Grade 4 were not significantly correlated with grades made by the experimental teachers in the anthropology institute, years of teaching experience, or age. The analysis of variance by different forms of the post-test scores shows some significant variables, but the results are inconclusive because of different difficulty levels of Forms A and B.

The significant mean gains achieved indicate the effectiveness of the material in teaching anthropology concepts. Pupil performance also indicates that curriculum material in the social studies, structured according to the organizing concepts of a single social science discipline, is appropriate for elementary school children.

Differences in mean gains in anthropology, as measured by pre- and post-tests, were not significant for children taught by trained as compared with untrained teachers, but analysis of variance on post-test scores, using F ratios, were significant on Form 1A and Forms 4A and 4B. The differences in one raw score of pupils taught by trained as compared with untrained teachers, however, may not be interpreted as pedagogically significant. Hence, it would appear that pupils can profitably benefit from instruction in anthropology, as part of a social studies program, taught by teachers who have had no specialized training in anthropology.

The non-significance of gains on the STEP test confirms the lack of anthropology items on this measure. However, pupils scoring highest on this instrument also showed the highest gains in anthropology in both experimental and control groups.

There were no separate data reported on pupil performance by race, but race was a significant source of variance for Grades 1 and 4. Approximately one-third of the total teacher population was Negro, since the children taught in 1965 included in the population were all taught in segregated schools. Teacher variance attributed to race of teacher may well be a pupil-factor of low socio-economic status, since in Georgia most Negro pupils come from the lowest income groups whose parents have the least amount of education.

MJR

Gustafson, Lucile. *Relationship Between Ethnic Group Membership and the Retention of Selected Facts Pertaining to American History and Culture.* New York: New York University, 1957. (dissertation) 108 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Gustafson studied the effect of ethnic group membership (loosely defined) on perception, learning, and retention of information relating to Jewish, Negro and dominant American (Northwest European background) historical and contemporary personalities, events, and developments. The 48 students in the study were selected from 400 10th-graders in a single Akron, Ohio, high school and were matched as to IQ (Otis--average was 101-102), sex, and age. No attempt was made to equate subjects as to socio-economic level; most were considered to be middle-class. In the sample, 65% were listed as dominant-American, 25% Jewish-American, and 10% Negro-American. The sample was very small and incomplete in some respects, for example, relative lack of high-IQ Negro-Americans and low-IQ Jewish-Americans.

The experiment involved the pre-testing of the students with an originally designed instrument, one class period of instruction (reading and study of an original reading selection), followed by a post-test with the same instrument and a 30-day delayed retention-test again using the same instrument. The instrument contains 90 specific items about personalities, organizations and other facts included in the reading selection.

Gustafson found that ethnic group membership is an affective factor in retention. Each ethnic group scored higher (although not always significant statistically) on questions relating to role, contributions and status of its group than did any other culture group. The 2 minority groups made comparable mean scores. Negro-American students, who presumably experienced the most prejudice and discrimination, produced the most divergent scores. The percentage of memory loss was less relative to one's own group compared to memory loss of facts about other groups. But surprisingly, Negroes also forgot more about their own group than did either of the other 2 groups. As time elapsed, group differences were accentuated. Item analyses revealed test items confliting with prevalent group attitudes tended to be forgotten more readily, yet individual students within each group varied in their readiness to learn about others. Of the 3 groups, the dominant-Americans showed the greatest readiness to learn about other cultural groups.

Events of the past decade might alter findings in a replication-study, as might a broader sample of subjects in, for example, IQ, geographic location, socio-economic status, and other qualities. But this investigation does document selective perception and retention, as affected by ethnic group membership, in the social studies.

DOS

Guysenir, Maurice G., and Nils J. Hedstrom, "Teaching American History in Inner-City Schools," *Illinois Schools Journal*, vol. 49, Summer, 1969, pp. 117-123.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

There is much in the literature which leads one to believe that the solution to the "failure-frustration" pattern exhibited by inner-city school students to provide them with learning materials commensurate with their abilities. This is especially true in regard to reading materials. In content areas the textbooks often seem too difficult. The resultant failure not only creates frustration, but it also causes students to develop negative attitudes toward the subject.

The authors point out that history teachers have alternative methodologies which bypass the reading problem. The case-study method is singled out and exemplified. The authors maintain that cities demand textbooks in spite of the alternative methods. One solution has been to produce new or modify published textbooks specifically for the inner-city schools. To determine the effectiveness of this approach, 2 hypotheses were tested using 2 7th-grade classrooms (64 students) on Chicago's West Side.

The hypotheses were: (1) children whose reading ability is 2 to 3 years below their grade level will score higher in their American history tests if the subject matter is written at a level commensurate with their reading ability. (2) The interest of academically-slow students in American history will increase if they use textbooks with a reading level closer to their reading ability.

Students were regrouped so that all pertinent factors for each group remained the same except for a reading variable. The control group of 32 used *History of Our United States*, a text written for 7th- and 8th-grade students. The experimental group used the same text but adapted to a 4th- and 5th-grade reading level and retitled *The Story of America.*

The hypotheses were not supported. The authors conclude that the positive attitude of white middle-class youngsters is needed to displace the negative attitudes toward education held by inner-city youngsters. Bussing small proportions of inner-city students to middle-class environments is not the solution, the researchers suggest. The teaching of history in inner-city schools needs new techniques rather than a typical textbook approach. The new techniques must be oriented to the present, to people, and to action.

This study has notable omissions: (1) description of the precise treatment, (2) statistical data, (3) instruments to measure attitudes and achievement, and (4) an adequate size sample of students.

LMS

Hayes, Annamarie, and Clyde Montgomery. Pilot Study: Afro-American Instructional Curriculum Laboratory. Detroit, Mich.: Michigan-Ohio Regional Educational Laboratory, July, 1969. (mimeo) 54 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: description
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: omitted
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The Michigan-Ohio Regional Lab (MOREL) conducted an exploratory project during the period of January-May, 1969 dealing with the effects of racism through teacher-student education activities centered around an Afro-American Instructional Curriculum Laboratory. The basic purpose for establishing the Curriculum Laboratory was to provide materials that would make it possible for black and white students and teachers to "really" learn about the black experience. MOREL's pilot study report claims that the availability of the Laboratory will enable its users to: (1) examine their own self-concepts, (2) question the authenticity of currently taught American history, (3) compare the connotations of specific words (related to race) in various English dialects, (4) contrast the political, economical, legislative, and historical influences with today's thought, and (5) become aware of the many events that shape attitudes in relation to race.

The Curriculum Laboratory consists of 3 collections of Afro-American materials and facilitating audio-visual equipment. In addition to books, the collection contains Afro-artifacts, films, primers, portraits, filmstrips, records and other items. The reporters indicate that the material can accommodate a wide span of age groups--from 1st grade to adult--with a majority of the materials appropriate for junior high students.

Four hour pilot workshops were conducted at 2 junior high schools, Sherrard Junior High School, Detroit and Jefferson Junior High School, Pontiac. Ten teacher-volunteers and 10 students attended each workshop. Students were selected by the staff as representing a cross-section of their respective student bodies. The purpose of the workshops was to plan how to use the AAICL collection in their respective schools.

Teachers' and students' ratings of the program were obtained by a 45-item questionnaire. Generally teachers and students agreed that the purpose of the project was to increase either student or teacher knowledge about Negroes or to facilitate a greater Afro-American curricular input. Less than half of both teacher and student groups felt the purposes were accomplished very well. Both groups generally agreed that their schools' textbooks were inadequate. In responding to what the participants considered to be the greatest strength of the AAICL Collection, the students indicated the books while the teachers rated highest the films and filmstrips.

The small size of the student sample coupled with the fact that the participant teachers were volunteers limits the value of this study. It should also be mentioned that the questionnaire elicited subjective responses.

LMS

Hess, Robert D., dir. Authority, Rules, and Aggression, a Cross-National Study of the Socialization of Children Into Compliance Systems. Part I Final Report USOE Bureau of Research Project No. 2947. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago, March, 1969.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This is a massive study that continues the earlier investigations of Hess and others in the U.S. and researchers pursuing similar inquiry in other countries. The survey reports three types of data: (1) children's conceptions of rules, laws, and authority figures; (2) behavior exhibited in the classroom, and (3) relationships linking conceptions of the compliance system with overt behavior. Variables of age, sex, socio-economic status (SES), national origin and ethnic (racial) background are considered. National findings are reported for Denmark, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, and the United States. For the U.S. separate data analyses are provided for Caucasians and Negroes. In this regard the Study goes beyond Hess' earlier work which reported data only for the former. In each country the study was conducted in a large city. For the U.S. study that city is Chicago. Each national group was comprised of 600 children, one-third at each grade level: 4, 6,8, and 50% of each sex, and 50% of each of two SES levels. SES (high-low) was determined by parental occupation and place of residence in the city. Cross-national comparability of SES was controlled. The high-low SES grouping among the U.S. Negro sample are not as distinct as for U.S. Caucasians due to lack of sufficient "high" status subjects. This may account for fewer SES differences among Negroes.

Test instruments included (1) a questionnaire, "Your Ideas About People and Rules," (2) a semi-projective technique device, "Picture Agression Ratings," and (3) a sociometric device, "Peer Nomination Inventory." Also a 10% random sub-sample from each total national group was interviewed. Data were analyzed for significance of variations using multivariate analysis techniques (ANOVA) and relationships among variables based on Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients.

Findings for the two U.S. samples are reported separately and then compared and summarized. The Summary and Conclusion section is disappointingly brief and restricted, given the wealth of gathered and analyzed data. Essentially, the study bears out earlier findings reported by Hess and others with regard to the socialization process. Negro and Caucasian children in the U.S. are very similar in political knowledge and attitudes and in the development stages they undergo with regard to both cognitive and affective political learning. For example, in both groups young children hold positive images of all authority figures included in the study. Children of both groups become less positive and differentiate their attitudes toward particular figures as they grow older. Parents are held in particularly high esteem and for longer periods than other authority figures.

Major differences associated with SES and race include:

1. Especially marked decline among older Negro children in image of policemen and to a lesser extent in their attitudes toward teachers and the President. Lower class status accentuates the differences with 8th-grade Negro boys quite negative toward policemen.

2. U.S. Caucasian children see the teacher as having more power to punish non-compliance to rules than do Negro children.

3. Tendency for lower SES children to believe that disobedience of the laws and rules of the city and government will result in punishment.

4. Greater tendency among lower SES children to see compliance systems as reinforcing one another in concentric fashion with family and schools sanctioning other authorities (but not vice-versa). This,the researchers suggest, implies greater responsibility among parents and schools for inducting children into the system.

5. Lower status students are more likely to see the family as democratic with regard to the establishment of rules. Among Negro children there is a tendency with increasing age to see an increase regarding the mother's role and decrease with regard to the father's role in the compliance system.

6. Negro girls display more political interest than Negro boys. This is an exception to more general findings in this and other studies.

7. Negro children's perception of parents' punitive power used to reinforce compliance to school authorities and rules is more related to classroom behavior than for Caucasian children.

8. For Negro children, especially girls, political interest appears more related to classroom behavior than for Caucasian youth. Those expressing highest interest are most cooperative with the teacher.

Many other findings are reported and corroborate earlier studies. One is struck by the reported similarities among racial groups and across SES lines. But Hess warns that Negro attitudes may have markedly changed since he conducted the study and that they probably represent an over-optimistic picture.

DOS

Hess, Robert D., and Torney, Judith V. The Development of Political Attitudes in Children. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., Anchor Book Edition, 1968, (hardbound, Aldine Publishing Co., 1967). 331 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: background, implications

ABSTRACT

The political socialization studies of Hess, Baston, and Torney of the University of Chicago undertaken 1960-1963 are reported. An earlier pilot study with 2,000 high school students indicated most basic political socialization was completed before, or that at least little change occurred during the high school years. Thus, attention turned to elementary-age students. Pilot studies with this age group involved about 5,000 students in the Chicago area. The major study involved approximately 12,000 students in 8 cities in the 4 major regions of the United States. One large and one small city sample (over 1,000,000 and under 400,000 total population) was comprised of 4 school subsamples--2 classrooms at each grade level in 2 middle-class and 2 working-class area schools in each of the Northeast, South, Midwest, and Far West regions. Socio-economic status was tentatively assigned according to school attendance in designated areas and later checked by identifying (designated by students, identified in school records, or assigned according to mean category for school) fathers' occupations. Schools in areas of high ethnic or racial concentration were avoided, thereby increasing the proportion of high-IQ and high-socio-economic status students in the sample. Data for the few non-white students (only 269 Negroes, Orientals, and Mexicans) are not included in this report.

All students were asked to complete a questionnaire in class. The questionnaire was developed after interviews with students to identify vocabulary and other problems; it was refined after the pilot study. A single 40-page instrument based upon item difficulty progression for all students resulted (2nd-graders completed 16 pages; 3rd-graders, 24 pages, and 4th-8th-graders, all of it). Two teacher questionnaires, one measuring attitudes and one soliciting data regarding curriculum content and teaching practices, were also administered. None of the instruments is reproduced; some sample items are provided.

To examine "stability" (reliability) of responses, the student questionnaire was readministered to a selected sample of 1,158 students up to 2 weeks later. The "stability" coefficients varied widely (.27-.80) with the medians of .38-.54 (produce-

moment correlation). Analyses of data included (1) tabulation by grade, sex, and social status; (2) correlational and factor analysis; (3) regression and chi-square analysis; and (4) tabulation of attitude items by grade, IQ, and sex, holding other variables constant. Most reported data are a result of this latter analysis. For their analysis the authors developed a "Significance Unit" to estimate probability of chance with regard to the graphic presentations, and here again there is considerable variation.

The report is packed with important findings, many of which support some earlier research showing the importance and lasting effect of early childhood political socialization. Two areas of most pertinence are the role of the school as an agent of socialization, and social class and IQ as mediating factors. IQ appears the most important single factor with regard to political knowledge and attitude attainment. But low-status students: (1) have a more personalized, less abstract view of government; they "see" people as the system, and express more emotional attachment to figures (President, policeman); (2) perceive laws as more rigid than high-status children and show less of a tendency to dispute the fairness of laws; (3) express less interest in politics; (4) possess a lesser sense of political efficacy--as do lower IQ students--and this pattern increases each year in school through grade 8. (This was the most striking status-related finding since it was one of the few variables on which there was considerable difference between middle- and low-status groups and persisted regardless of IQ correlations); (5) report more personal political interest than they report displayed by their families (thus apparently underscoring the need for school or others to maintain achievable interest); (6) participate less in political discussions and show less concern with political issues. Hess and Torney concluded that elementary school is thus more important in the political socialization process of low-status children and warn that in several areas these children are incompletely socialized at the end of the 8th grade. Since further socialization is minimal beyond this point, a reworking of the elementary school experience is implied.

While the study is rich in data about children's attitudes and information in the early 1960's, some of the inferences seem unwarranted. Other alternatives are plausible. Conclusions about the role of the family, peer groups, schools, and other institutions in the process of socialization requires further testing. While criticizing the school for its failure to deal with conflict resolutions or critical issues in a democratic society, the researchers apparently fail to ask students about these very areas. That changes in curriculum or teaching can effect changes in direction or extent of socialization at the secondary level remains untested. That the role of the elementary school is primary appears unsubstantiated. This does not void the basic findings cited above, but illustrates the weaknesses of data analysis and incompleteness of the data.

DOS

Hunt, Anne Johnson, Anthropology Achievement of Normal and Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1969. (dissertation) 63 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to ascertain the effectiveness of a teaching strategy based upon the selection of specific content and procedures from the discipline of anthropology for normal and disadvantaged kindergarten children. The two major research hypotheses were: no statistical significance in anthropology achievement between experimental and control groups and among socio-economic groups, using the pre-test in anthropology as a covariable. Subordinate hypotheses concerned the relationship of anthropology gain to pupil mental and chronological age.

Experimental Group I consisted of pupils representing a normal population; Experimental Group II consisted of disadvantaged pupils. Both experimental groups were taught the kindergarten unit "Concept of Culture." The control group was taught a conventional social studies unit dealing with Egypt. Teachers of the experimental groups had no specialized training in Anthropology.

The treatment consisted of a special kindergarten unit adapted from Grade 1 and Grade 4 units "Concept of Culture" developed by the Anthropology Curriculum Project, University of Georgia. The 34-day unit consists of 34 lessons, organized into four parts: How We Study People, Material Culture, Roles Within the Family, Family and Community, and Religion. In addition to the teacher manual, pupils are provided an activity book. Each lesson provides the teacher with specific learning objectives, key words, suggested materials and their use, and suggested classroom procedures. Lead teachers taught the unit. In-service sessions to check on progress were held every two weeks. Experimental I classes were drawn from the Clayton County-R & D cooperative pre-primary research center. Kindergarten children in this center had had one and a half years pre-primary experience, having entered the program as three-year olds. Experimental II children came from Title I kindergartens in Gainesville, Georgia. The control kindergartens were provided by Clarke County. Experimental II and Control classes, unlike Experimental I, had had no previous pre-primary experience.

Pupil characteristics by group, race, and socio-economic

status were:

Group	Race W	Race N	Socio-Economic Status U	Socio-Economic Status M	Socio-Economic Status L	Total
Experimental I	73	4	28	26	23	77
Experimental II	33	50	5	3	75	83
Control	34	6	23	6	11	40
Total	140	60	56	35	109	200

Data collection involved the use of the

(1) Pupil Achievement in Anthropology, Form 1 Compositie pre- and Post-test, KR-20 post-test reliability .795, median post-test index difficulty, .502, TSSA Program;

(2) Hollingshead Two-Factor Index of Social Position identified low, middle, and upper groups;

(3) Stanford-Binet Form L-M IQ scores, word knowledge section of Metropolitan Achievement Battery, Test I, and chronological age; and

(4) teacher appraisal based upon an inventory completed by the nine experimental teachers.

Test item discrimination and other test statistics were analyzed by the Test Scorer and Statistical Analysis 2 program. Other statistical treatment included least squares analysis of covariance and Pearson product-moment correlation, using the Dixon BMD03D computer program for incomplete data.

Results. The analysis of variance of post-test anthropology scores indicated that differences significant at the .01 level were obtained for the main effects of treatment and race but that sex and socio-economic status were not significant. IQ and word knowledge were positive and significantly correlated with gains in anthropology at the .01 level. Chronological age was positively correlated but not significant.

Gains in corrected mean scores were:

	PRE	POST	GAIN
Experimental 2	2.59	10.60	7.81
Experimental 1	6.25	13.23	6.98
Control	5.64	6.29	1.15

Teachers appraised the unit a success as judged by pupil interest and apparent readiness of children to study foreign cultures. Teachers reported that children handled scientific terms and concepts better than they would have predicted. The children were able to compare clothing, shelter, and earning a living in 7 of the 9 classes, according to teacher reports.

Evaluation showed the successful adaptation of the teaching of anthropology to the kindergarten level, using the organizing concepts of anthropology to structure the material. The simulation technique of children playing the role of "participant observer" was probably a factor in maintaining pupil interest.

Experimental I corrected mean post-test scores were 3 points higher than mean post-test scores for Experimental II. Corrected mean gains of the disadvantaged group were somewhat larger than for the advantaged group. In this study, however, the disadvantaged group was not merely compared with an advantaged group, but one which had the benefits of two additional years of pre-school experience. The performance of Experimental II group is therefore even more significant, and indicates that the disadvantaged learner may not be nearly so disadvantaged with respect to the ability to learn a new technical subject, but may be primarily disadvantaged in terms of the general expectancy of the school. Instruction of the disadvantaged in material of a more structured as well as technical nature may be one way of reducing the class bias of conventional programs.

There was no control of race by socio-economic status, and there was no interaction treatment of race by socio-economic status. Approximately three-fourths of the Negro children in Title I Gainesville kindergartens fall into the lower class status. Population characteristics show such a confounding of race and socio-economic class that race alone may not be the significant source of variance. However, since Experimental II was composed primarily of Negro kindergartners, the significant achievement gains indicate that Negro children profited from instruction in the unit.

MJR

Imperatore, William A. Evaluation of A Conceptual Geography Unit for Kindergarten. Geography Curriculum Project. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1969. (dissertation) 118 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: quasi-experimental
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study was undertaken to ascertain the extent to which a systematic study of geography would stimulate kindergartners verbal and conceptual ability, and the relationship of certain independent pupil variables, such as race and socio-economic status, and certain teacher variables, such as background in geography, experience in teaching unit, and teacher perception of unit appropriateness, to pupil achievement in geography. The major hypothesis of the study was that the geography unit "Earth: Man's Home" is appropriate for use at the kindergarten level. It was postulated that pupil and teacher variables would not be significant with respect to the four dependent variables: achievement, achievement for whites independent of Negroes, gains and adjusted achievement. A multivariate program of analysis permitted the generation of three sub-hypotheses for each independent variable. An interaction analysis of independent with dependent variables thus provided a total of 96 cells, some of which were empty due to non applicability of variables.

The research design used was a combination of Stanley and Campbell pre-experimental designs 1 and 2. The combined design permitted use of a randomly selected student group which was not pretested. This procedure was used to ascertain the influence of pre-testing on geography achievement (not-significant).

The treatment consisted of an investigator constructed unit "Earth: Man's Home" which had been pilot tested in 1968 with five kindergarten teachers and the investigator as teacher with 83 pupils and revised on the basis of pupil and teacher feedback. The introductory unit is a habitat unit; other units in the primary series deal with place-environment, resource-production, and region. The material for "Earth: Man's Home" consisted of a teacher manual, pupil workbooks, and a climate map. The teacher's manual contains the 27 daily lesson plans, suggestions for unit development, five geographic essays for the teacher, and a single form of a pre- and post-test. Each lesson provides the teacher with a structured learning plan to achieve the lesson objectives.

The population consisted of 307 kindergarten pupils in 17 intact classes located in Clayton County, Gainesville, Oglethorpe County, and Oconee County, all in Georgia. The kindergarten sample included children who had had two years previous experience in pre-school, as in Clayton County, as well as Title I disadvantaged kindergartners in Gainesville. There were 118 Negroes and 189 whites. Eighty-two percent of Negro children came from the lowest two SES positions on the Hollingshead scale while only 21% of the white children fall into this category.

Data collection involved use of: (1) Pupil achievement in geography was measured by an investigator constructed, 30 item, three picture-foil single form test used for pre- and post-testing; post-test reliability KR-20 0.86; (2) Hollingshead Two-factor Index of Social Position, collected from school records or a questionnarie sent home by pupils; (3) Pupil validation of the pictorial validity of the test was by identification and description in a stratified sample of 30 pupils (3 of 90 foils are ambiguous and need to be changed); and (4) Teacher variables, i.e., number of courses in geography, previous experience in teaching unit, and teacher perception of unit appropriateness. The latter was based on a numerical index computed from teacher reaction to a daily lesson rating scale conducted by the investigator.

The test was scored and results were analyzed by the Test Scorer and Statistical Analysis program. Geography achievement, gains, and adjusted achievement (post-test scores) as influenced by the pupil and teacher variables were analyzed by means of the MUDAID, multivariate, univariate, and discrimination analysis of irregular data computer program. Six pairs of pupil and six pairs of teacher variables were analyzed. An irregular analysis of variance was performed for each pair of independent variables.

Sex and pre-testing were shown to be not significant pupil variables for either achievement, gains, or adjusted achievement. Race and socio-economic status were highly significant variables (.001) for achievement and adjusted achievement but not for gains in geography. Background in geography independent of teacher experience was significant for achievement only, but was not significant in terms of any other variables. Teacher experience and teacher percepfion of unit appropriateness were highly significant independent variables (.001) for achievement and adjusted achievement.

The influence of pre-testing was non-significant despite the fact that a single form test was used. Race and geography contributed significantly to differences in final geography achievement. Race and socio-economic status are essentially synonymous in this study because race is "nested" in socio-economic status. Ninety-four percent of the Negro kindergartners were in the lower three social classes on the Hollingshead scale; 61 percent in the lowest class, compared with 10 percent for whites.

All levels of significance were reduced in the analysis of geography gains by pupil variables. Race and socio-economic status, independent of each other, were non-significant. The finding that pupils in general had comparable gains regardless of their particular characteristics is lessened somewhat when gains are viewed through an analysis of adjusted achievement. There were significant differences between groups based on race independent of sex and socio-economic status independent of race and sex. Race, when analyzed independent of socio-economic status, was a non-significant contributor to differences in adjusted geography achievement. On adjusted achievement, whites tended to score lower and Negroes tended to score higher. However, Negro adjusted achievement means were lower than for whites. But this difference was not statistically reliable when the adjustment was made for socio-economic status.

The teacher variables of background in geography, previous experience in teaching the unit, and teacher perception of appropriateness, when studied independent of each other singly, were significant except for geography background of teacher when studied independent of perception of overall unit appropriateness. Background in geography was not significant per se; however, teachers who had more courses in geography tended to give a more favorable evaluation of the appropriateness of the unit. The lower significance of the variable geography background of the teacher might be attributed, on the one hand, to the "low powered" nature of the geography with which the teacher had to deal in the unit. Further, the daily lessons provide specific teaching plans; the learning tasks are made specific; and the teacher was provided with the necessary content and method to achieve those ends. In contrast with teacher background, teacher experience in having previously taught the unit and teacher perception of unit appropriateness were significant. Pupils who perceived the unit as more appropriate achieved more than pupils who were taught by teachers who made a negative evaluation of unit appropriateness.

In the study of white students' geography achievement, the lower socio-economic categories had the lowest gains, as with all students. Irrespective of race, pupils disadvantaged with respect to socio-economic status had lower achievement than pupils in the high categories. The disadvantaged socio-economic position of a pupil is a major factor in school performance, rather than race in and of itself. The lower performance of Negroes is a reflection of the extreme cognitive and psychological deprivation of lower socio-economic status non-whites.

Geography learning gains were significant for whites and Negroes, boys and girls, irrespective of social status and whether they were taught by trained or untrained, experienced or inexperienced teachers with high, middle, or low perception of unit appropriateness. The significance of the measured gains indicate that the unit was used to advantage with all pupils.

MJR

Jones, William Ernest. An Investigation of the Case Method of Instruction in Selected Eighth Grade Civics Classes. Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, 1965. (dissertation) 219 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: inadequate
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

This study purports to consider strengths and weaknesses of the case-study approach and to make recommendations for application of this approach to a public school social studies program partly on the basis of a review of literature and partly on the basis of an experimental study. The results of this study include measures of gains in both information and attitude changes in using the case-study method for approximately 2 weeks of instruction at the junior high school level. However, a serious limitation of the study is the lack of comparison with other instructional methods or materials; that is, no control groups are used in this study. The case-study method reported herein represents a series of written cases, hypothetical in nature, each approximately 250 words in length. These cases represent contemporary situations and are designed to be provocative rather than illustrative of specific Bill of Rights principles.

The study was conducted in Berkeley, California, among 437 8th-grade students in 2 junior high schools in 14 different classes taught by 7 teachers. The students were 58% Negro, 29% Caucasian, 10% Oriental, and 2% Mexican. The students were placed for instruction in one of 3 ability-level groupings. Approximately 34% were in the high grouping (60-149 IQ), 43% in the middle grouping (60-129 IQ), and 23% in the low group (50-119 IQ). A pre-test, post-test was developed in a pilot study. This instrument included a test of knowledge related to the Bill of Rights, an attitudinal inventory regarding the acceptance or rejection of Bill of Rights principles, and a purported measure of case-analytical skills. The attempt to ascertain reliability and validity of the test instrument was weak. Face validity was accepted for the knowledge section. Reliability was not adequately checked and the test of case analytical skills was never properly refined.

In addition to the test data, the researcher inventoried both students and teachers regarding their impressions of the materials and procedures used. Students were generally favorable in their reactions. Over 80% reported that they liked, and 90% that they learned from, the materials and procedures. They (73%) also liked them better than other procedures and (64%) felt they learned more from the former. Relatively few weaknesses

or dislikes were noted. About 9% disliked answering questions and 6% found the treatment dull. Their suggestions for improving the approach included a desire for more cases and more chance for participation and discussion. They also desired more actual and interesting cases, more variety, and more detail in the cases. Teachers similarly reported favorably. Most noted that the procedures or materials were excellent or very good; none rated the procedures or materials as poor.

Most disappointing about the study was the fact that no tests of statistical significance were applied to the data. Only mean scores and correlations are reported. Among the reported data are the following: (1) Generally, higher-IQ children made greater gains in information. (2) Average students made greater gains in attitude changes. Even lower-IQ students in the 70-90 range made greater gains than higher IQ students in the 120-150 range. Students in the 90-120 IQ range, however, made the greatest change in attitude. (3) Racial-ethnic factors were of mixed significance. The mean changes for Negroes in both information and attitude scores were about the same as those for the total group. Mexican-American students, on the other hand, showed an unusually high attitudinal change although their information change was low. Another disappointment was that socio-economic status data were not singled out for separate treatment. The socio-economic data may have, in fact covaried with race as significant factors.

Implications of the experimental study are minimal at best. There are weaknesses in design and execution. Of importance, however, is the fact that the case-study approach used in this particular study appears to have had a major impact on the attitudes of one minority group, the Mexican-Americans, beyond the relative impact it had on the learning of specific content. The reasons for this are not suggested in the report and the author draws no conclusions about it. Another minority group, the Negro (largest group in the study) showed no major difference in either attitude change or information increment in comparison to other groups in the study. Probably more revealing than conclusions based on the test data are implications that can be drawn from the reported student and teacher reactions.

DOS

Kamm, Ernest. Teaching Conceptual Thinking to Culturally Disadvantaged Youths by the Didactic-Successive, Didactic-Simultaneous, Heuristic-Successive, and Heuristic-Simultaneous Methods. Washington, D.C.: The American University, 1967. (dissertation) 118 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study compares the effectiveness of four approaches to teaching concept identification to disadvantaged youths. The four methods are: (1) didactic-successive in which teachers give direct explanations of how to conceptualize (categorize) data in a particular fashion followed by similar teacher instruction using an alternate conceptualization procedure; (2) didactic-simultaneous in which teachers give direct explanation for conceptualizing in two different ways at the same time; (3) heuristic-successive in which teachers use leading questions to assist students in the conceptualization process, teaching two systems but one at a time; (4) heuristic-simultaneous in which leading questions are used to teach two ways of grouping or conceptualizaing data at the same time.

Students sample included 63 Negro youths 15-18 years old residing in a school for juvenile delinquents. Families from which they came had incomes of less than $4,000 per year. Student performance on the CAT reading, language, and arithmetic sections were seventh grade or less. The 21 girls and 42 boys were divided into groups of 3 to 6 students, separated by sex, and assigned to one of the four treatment groups. A pre- and post-test incorporating 15 tetrads of words, lettered on 22" x 14" signs including five each of animals, clothes and foods was developed and used.

Results indicated that the didactic-simultaneous method was by far the most effective, followed by didactic-successive, heuristic-successive and finally heuristic-simultaneous. The implication is that a structured didactic teaching strategy is more suitable to teaching disadvantaged students since it is more congruent, according to the researchers, with their background of authoritarianism, deprived environment, and deficiency in formal language. This teaching approach was also found to be more acceptable to the youths participating in the study.

DOS

239

Karnes, Merle B., and others. A Comparative Study of Two Preschool Programs for Culturally Disadvantaged Children--A Highly Structured and A Traditional Program. Urbana, Ill.: Institute for Research on Exceptional Children, University of Illinois, August, 1966. (mimeo) Bureau of Research 5-1181, ERIC ED 016 525. 111 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

The general hypothesis of this study was that "...four-year-old culturally disadvantaged children participating in a highly structured preschool program designed to ameliorate deficits and accelerate their rate of growth in areas important for later school success will show progress significantly superior to that of comparable children participating in a traditional nursery school program." In particular, it was hypothesized that the experimentals would significantly outscore the comparisons on the following measures: the 1960 Stanford-Binet Individual Intelligence Scale, the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities, the Peabody Vocabulary Test, the Frosting Developmental Test of Visual Perception, and the Metropolitan Readiness Test.

The 55 culturally disadvantaged 4-year-olds selected for the study were matched for sex, IQ, race, and socio-economic status, then randomly assigned to either experimental or comparison groups. All of the instruments mentioned above were administered to both groups on a pre-test and post-test basis, with the exception of the Metropolitan Readiness Test, which was administered only as a post-test.

Both groups were taught for 2 hours and 15 minutes per day for 5 days a week over a period of 7 months. The comparison group, as previously noted, participated in a "traditional nursery school," whereas the experimental group took part in a highly structured program, geared especially to learning experiences they will encounter during the early elementary years. The experimental class was divided into 3 ability levels, each with a teacher-pupil ratio of 1 to 5. Students and teacher spent 25 minutes in each of 3 subject area rooms: mathematics, language arts and reading readiness, and social studies-science. The social studies curriculum was divided into 3 units. The first unit was concerned with body awareness and self-concept development through the use of exercise, songs, putting together pre-cut body figures, and drawing body outlines. The second unit dealt with family members and home environment. Pictures were cut out from integrated primers, rubber play people and family puppets were used for simulation of family activities, and cutouts from catalogues were used to match such items as clothing-body parts, furniture-room, clothing-similar types, and furniture-similar types. The third unit was concerned with science concepts as learned through experience in the kitchen.

The experimental group scored significantly higher than the comparison group on both the 1960 Stanford-Binet Individual Intelligence Scale and the Metropolitan Readiness Test (Total Readiness). Both were significant beyond the .001 level of confidence. There were no significant differences between groups on the other measures used.

The major weakness of the report is that it did not give adequate attention to the elements of instruction in the "traditional nursery school program" of the comparison group. The importance of social studies learning in the academic readiness of disadvantaged children is underscored by these findings. This was the first-year report of a five-year longitudinal study.

The Final Report of this study, Research and Development Program on Preschool Disadvantaged Children, published in 1969, contains a complete analysis and evaluation of the program; however, no further information regarding teaching of social studies concepts is reported.

WGG

King, Charles E. A Report on a Behavior Inventory of Pupils Who Attended Title I Summer Institute of 1968. Fairfax, Va.: Department of Research and Program Development, Fairfax County Public Schools, December 30, 1968. (mimeo) 11 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

A modification of a classroom Behavior Inventory Scale developed by Dr. Earl S. Schafer was applied to a sampling of typical summer institute students in grades 9 to 12. These students from low-income families, had previously failed or received a "D" in either English or social studies, and were taking the summer course for makeup credit.

Behavior Inventories aimed to determine whether student attitudes toward the educational environment would improve after their participation in the summer program. Regular session English and social studies teachers completed pre-treatment inventories on 88 students during the spring of 1968; post-treatment inventories were completed at the end of the Summer Institute by the program's English and social studies teachers. Teachers rated overall student adjustment, and their own confidence in rating student adjustment and indicated ratings on a bipolar scale for 12 groups of behavior items. Differences in ratings between regular and summer sessions were highly significant as determined by a T-value of 6.379 showing Summer Institute ratings of the same pupils to be nearer a "well adjusted" classification. The evidence supports significant improvements in academic interest, student participation in class, student attitude toward the teacher effort in learning activities, interest in field trip activities, control of self-consciousness, and in some areas of self-concepts. Little improvement was observed in tendencies toward withdrawal, asking questions related to instruction, making own decisions rather than going along with others, setting high goals and working toward them, excessive emotional passivity, erratic work habits, and improvement in self-concept.

The curriculum was designed by local English and social studies supervisors and selected staff members. It included activities in English, social studies, art, and music. An inspection of the method-content outlines from the five centers indicates liberal use of films, field trips, and "high interest" literature. The program was non-graded and instruction suited to small groups. The institute student-teacher ratio was fifteen to one.

Usefulness of the report is limited for several reasons.

(1) There is no control group evidence presented. (2) The inventories call upon teachers to make subjective judgments. (3) The Summer Institute teachers were selected on the basis of flexibility, resourcefulness, and willingness to share in team planning. (4) The report does not specify the effectiveness of the social studies program. (5) Ratings by different teachers may not be comparable.

Implications of this study involve class size and organization, with very tenuous implicatons for types of materials and teacher qualifications.

LMS

Larkin, Amasa Guy. Assessing Achievement on a First-Grade Economics Course of Study. Logan, Utah: Utah State University, 1968. (dissertation) 203 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: application

ABSTRACT

The researcher undertook to determine whether first-grade children can learn the basic concepts in Our Working World: Families at Work developed by Lawrence Senesh. Since none existed, he first developed an achievement test. Four Primary Economics tests for Grade One were developed: Yes-No, Matched Pairs, All-No and Picture tests, with the researcher finally settling on the Matched-Pairs as the most appropriate.

Control and experimental groups of students were selected from one urban, one rural and two suburban school systems in Utah and an additional experimental group was tested in Elkhart, Indiana, where Senesh developed the program. Instruments used were a mental ability test and the newly developed economics test PET-1. Analysis of covariance was adjusted for differences in ability between control and experimental groups; chi-square was used in item-response analysis to determine concept training.

Reported findings indicated significantly greater (.01 level) learning of concepts among experimental groups using the Families at Work program. Each concept in the program was learned by some students. High ability students did not achieve complete mastery of concepts as represented by perfect or near-perfect PET-1 test scores. Low ability students (at least 6 months below grade norms) did learn some of the concepts as evidenced by their significantly (.01) higher scores as compared to students in control classes. Of importance also are the test data indicating that mean scores for students in Elkhard were not significantly greater than for those in Utah. Thus the Utah teachers without benefit of in-service training experienced by the Elkhart teachers, were able to bring about comparable achievement among their students.

While low-ability students in this research were not identified as disadvantaged, the study has implications for the Study in two ways. First, since many disadvantaged students have depressed ability test scores, the fact that low-ability students could learn at least some of the concepts in Families at Work, suggests that it may be used successfully with disadvantaged children. Second, the program may not require extensive teacher in-service training in order for it to be used effectively.

DOS

Larrick, Nancy. "The All-White World of Children's Books," Saturday Review, Sept. 11, 1965, pp. 63-65, 84-85.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

The investigator surveyed 5,206 children's books published between 1962 and 1964. A total of 63 publishers (90%) replied to a questionnaire. It was found that 349 books included one or more Negroes (6.7%). Larger publishers (Doubleday, Franklin Watts, Macmillan, Harper & Row) published 866 of the total; only 4.2% of them depict a Negro in text or picture. Responses showed 8 publishers produced only all-white books. Many of the "integrated" books were hard to identify as such although publishers claimed they were. Of the books surveyed .008% tell a story about American Negroes. The balance of the survey concentrates on discussion of specific titles. The date of this study limits its applicability.

WGG

Litcher, John H. and David W. Johnson. "Changes in Attitudes toward Negroes of White Elementary School Students after Use of Multiethnic Readers," Journal of Educational Psychology, vol. 60, 1969, pp. 148-152.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The prime focus of this study was to determine the effect of multiethnic readers on white 2nd-grade children's attitudes toward Negroes. The research design is the classic pre- and post-test design with intact classes used and analysis of covariance employed to control for the "slight" differences between the control and experimental groups.

The population consisted of 68 white, middle-class children from 2 classes. The teachers divided the children into reading groups. In one class the high reading group children read from the multiethnic reader and the middle reading group children read from the standard edition. In the other class the high reading group children read from the regular reader and the middle group used the multiethnic reader. The editions of the readers were identical except that the multiethnic series included some non-white characters in the pictures and differences in names representing the characters of racial and ethnic groups.

Subjects were tested on 4 published instruments, a variation of the Clark Doll Test, the Show Me Test, the Categories Test, and the Direct Comparison Test. In the Clark Doll Test the students were shown one white and one dark brown doll and asked a series of questions--show me the doll that you would like to play with, like best, is a nice doll, and other similar questions. The Show Me Test consists of 12 photographs of Negro and white boys and girls; the students were asked to "show me the one that comes from a poor home, doesn't look very smart, you'd want to play with, and so forth. The Categories Test shows a series of 5 children, white and Negro, male and female; the students were asked to reject the one picture as not belonging to the group. The Direct Comparison Test requires children to make comparisons between Negroes and whites on 18 traits, that is, cheerful, honest, and lazy, among others.

On all the tests there were no significant differences between experimental and control groups on the pre-tests. The analysis of covariance technique was used to analyze the post-tests. The data indicate that on all 4 of the post-tests the children using the multiethnic readers responded significantly more favorably toward Negroes than children using the regular readers.

The data from the Clark Doll Test indicated that the use of the multiethnic reader reduced the preference for one's own racial group over the other. The control group expressed marked preferences for the white rather than the Negro doll; the experimental group students were far less unanimous about their preferences.

MH

McFarlane, Paul T. Pilot Studies of Role Behavior in a Parent-Child Simulation Game. Baltimore, Md.: Johns Hopkins University Center for the Study of Social Organization, February, 1969. (mimeo) Bureau of Research 6-1610. ERIC ED 027593. 34 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

A pilot study was conducted prior to this investigation. Two versions of the game were used. The first was used with 6 black (10 to 13 year olds) males selected and paid 50 cents per hour. These boys were from low socio-economic backgrounds, but not randomly selected. A slightly revised version of the game was then tried with 4 black and 10 white students who played in segregated situations. Data were reported separately for blacks and whites. The author cautions about drawing any generalization about black-white differences or other findings, but reports black-white differences including: (1) blacks as parents (role played by students) ordered and punished children (role, again) more than did whites; (2) whites approached the model of behavior projected for maximum scoring more often than did blacks; (3) whites played the game more nearly the same in either role as parent or child; and (4) blacks broke orders (as children) less than whites (only 73% disobeyed compared to 100% for whites). Also 5th- and 6th-grade students could learn to play the game; reading, learning rules, and procedures were not problems. Students reflected implicit understandings of winning strategies, but could not verbalize them.

DOS

Marcus, Lloyd. The Treatment of Minorities in Secondary School Textbooks. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1961. 64 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale implied
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: background, implications

ABSTRACT

This is a report of a survey conducted in 1960 of 48 textbooks, 16 each in American history, world history, and social problems-civics to evaluate treatment of: Jews; minorities under Nazism; American Negroes; and immigrants. Criteria used in the study were: inclusiveness, validity, balance, comprehensiveness, concreteness, unity, and realism. A similar study was undertaken in 1949, and author frequently compares the results of the earlier and later surveys.

Regarding textbook treatment of Jews, Marcus concluded that there was (1) a continuation in world history texts of more attention to the ancient Hebrews than to later Jewish history, but that links and transition were being noted; (2) continued inadequate treatment of the Jews' role in the death of Jesus; (3) inadequate treatment of contributions of Jews throughout much of Western Civilization, although reasonably good discussions of modern Israel; (4) incidental treatment of Jews in most American history and "problems" texts; (5) deletion of reference to Jews as a "race."

Regarding text treatments of minorities under Nazism, Marcus reported that only 9 of 48 texts gave adequate presentation of Nazi persecution and only one met the criteria fully. One-third of the texts omitted it entirely. World history texts did the best job; social problems texts were weakest.

As compared to the 1949 text study, Marcus found that treatment of Negro Americans continued to be inadequate: (1) the Negroes' position in contemporary America was largely ignored and there was a tendency to treat their situation in generalized rather than factual terms; (2) stereotyped historical treatment ignoring historical figures, contributions, movements; (3) absence of "scientific knowledge" regarding the equality of races; and (4) failure to incorporate photographs and illustrations depicting Negroes in various phases of American life.

The text treatment of immigrants was little better. While a more sympathetic portrayal was accorded (1960 vs. 1949) post-1880 European immigrants, there was little improvement in the treatment of Asians and little attention given growing numbers of

Spanish-speaking immigrants. However, more texts reflected a positive attitude about the immigrants' contribution to a pluralistic society.

This study can be cited for the trends it reveals over a 10-year period, although textbook accounts have changed considerably since 1960 with regard to some of the inadequacies noted by Marcus. Also, note that Marcus was the sole reviewer of texts, though he had the assistance of Gertrude Noar and Oscar Tarcon in analysis of findings.

DOS

Menge, J.W., chmn. A Report on the Treatment of Minorities in American History Textbooks. Lansing, Mich.: Michigan Department of Education, June 18, 1968. 25 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

A 5-member committee was appointed by the State Board of Education, on the recommendation of the State Superintendent, to assist in compliance with the act that requires the Superintendent of Public Instruction to make an annual random survey of social studies textbooks in use in the state in regard to the degree to which they fairly include recognition of the achievements and accomplishments of ethnic and racial groups. The committee contacted several nationally-known historians in quest of their nominations of colleagues qualified to serve on the American History Textbook Review Panel. Each historian was asked to critically appraise 2 of the textbooks (pre-selected on a random basis) according to the following criteria: (1) historical accuracy, (2) realistic treatment of the accomplishments and contributions of minorities, (3) the concept of "race," and (4) the total tone of the textbook.

Generally, the historians were highly critical of the textbooks in failing to measure up to the established criteria. Criticisms can be classified under 7 headings:

1. Historical inaccuracies that result from errors of omission: (1) a nearly total disregard for the establishment of slavery in the English colonies, and the first 200 years of that institution in this country; (2) neglect of educational attainments of Negroes during and after slavery; (3) failure to account for Negroes during Reconstruction; and (4) an absence of information about activities of various anti-Negro groups, and the discriminatory practices of the society as a whole.

2. Historical inaccuracies that result from errors of comission: This area of criticism focused on statements made by the textbooks that were found to be misleading and often incorrect, for example, the illusion that slavery was a happy time for Negroes, and the impression that recent Negro gains are largely due to "good whites," and that no further cause for grievance among Negroes is justified.

3. Avoidance of the controversial: The reviewers found that the textbooks generally avoided the presentation of unpleasant

and controversial material, failure to note past errors of the United States. This criticism extended far beyond the issue of minority treatment.

4. Absence of the "human element": Textbooks were found generally wanting in the area of providing a human frame of reference for the reader. The horrors of slavery are not mentioned; neither is the reader ever encouraged to put himself in the place of a slave, nor is he ever made to see the slave as a human being rather than an economic entity.

5. Treatment of the current civil rights movement: (1) misinterpretation or total ignoring of the significance of the 1954 Supreme Court Decision and the Civil Rights Laws of 1957 and 1960; and (2) a failure to describe adequately the forces at work in the Civil Rights Movement; the impression is that whites are responsible for improvement of Negroes.

6. Reliance on outdated historical research: Research appeared to be a reflection of scholarship done in the 1920's and 1930's; the Reconstruction period is especially weak. Some of the books reflected newer scholarship, but the reviewers felt that it was not always interpreted fairly.

7. Absence of moral stand: Only one of the 12 books was found to take a positive stand against slavery; for the most part, the others maintained a "moral neutralism."

The only conclusion that can be reached by reading these reviews is that they constitute a severe indictment of the American history textbooks in question. However, the data consist of complied judgments of each historian on selected elements in two textbooks. Quantitative data are lacking. Each book is evaluated in part rather than as a whole. And specific, realistic standards for textbooks, even in the limited aspects studied, were not reported nor, apparently, used in the evaluation.

WGG

Miller, James P. Profile of Title I Project: English as a Second Language (Secondary Level). Anthony, N.M.: Gadsden Independent Schools, 1965-67. (mimeo) 3 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: description
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: vague
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

Twenty-five Mexican-American public school children aged 13 to 18 participated in the Title I project. The instructional program contained language development and a cultural orientation program in Spanish, especially designed to help students adjust to the dominant culture of the school. The evaluation was essentially subjective. Teacher judgment posited that the group made a successful adjustment. Before the program's start, over 50% dropped out before a year of school, after the program 18 of 25 are still in school after a year (25% dropout rate). The social studies treatment is implied; it appears to be a presentation of the 2 culture's values and attitudes, compared and contrasted.

WGG

Muller, Daniel and Trinidad. Human Dignity Through American History: S^3C^2 Evaluation Report. Vallejo, Calif.: Vallejo Unified School District, Sept. 2, 1969. (mimeo) ERIC ES 002 294. 26 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TEHCNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Vallejo Schools developed new social science programs for grades 5, 8, and 11 with the focus on integrating history and contribution of minority racial groups into American history. An interdisciplinary, concepted-cultural multimedia program was developed to replace the traditional chronological, text-oriented program. Emphasis was placed on understanding others' value systems as well as one's own. Concepts to be developed were those identified by Price, Hickman, and Smith in Major Concepts for Social Studies. Behavioral objectives were developed for the program.

Teachers were involved from the inception of planning for the project. A committee of 18 teachers (granted 15 half-days of released time) met and planned with community, state department of education representatives, and others. They visited schools with innovative programs and examined books on recent trends in social studies. During the 1967-68 school year teachers designated by principals from each of the 3 grade levels were released occasionally from school duties to develop the program ($1,700 provided for substitutes). In the following year, 18 principal-recommended teachers piloted the materials and developed teachers' guides with project consultants. The experimental program apparently involved a full-year treatment. Some teachers participated in more than one of these successive groups.

Almost 500 students in 3 grades were involved in the experiment, with approximately half in control and half in the treatment group (5th--217 students, 94 treatment; 8th--137, 62; 11th--88, 62.) Fifteen teachers including some of the former planning committee members, taught the experimental group. The student composition in the sample is not described but the total school district student population is about 3/4 Caucasian and 1/4 non-white with less than 1% Oriental and 1% Spanish surnames. Socio-economic status is not reported. A motivating factor in developing the program was a degenerating relationship between Caucasians and Negroes.

Evaluation related to major objectives indicating that desirably "the student will ... (1) demonstrate a knowledge of American history with special emphasis upon the contributions of minority groups...; (2) demonstrate his understandings of the problem of the Negro minority in relation to other groups of the city...; (3) demonstrate the use of application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in the solution of human relations problems...; (4) make decisions based upon a consistent value system which considers human dignity the highest good...; (5) involve himself in activities related to the resolution of value conflicts...; and (6) demonstrate a growing appreciation of human dignity." The evaluation involves subject-matter achievement critical-thinking achievement and attitude-change assessment. The test instruments included Stanford Achievement Test, Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal, and locally district-developed instruments: Negro History Test, check list of student activities, attitude scale, and teacher and student questionnaires. Information is not provided regarding validity and reliability of the locally developed instruments.

The Stanford test was given as a pre- and post-test to all 3 grades; the Watson-Glaser Test was given only to 11th-graders as a post-test and the Negro History Test was administered in all 3 grades.as a post-test. Test data for the Stanford were computed for individual students and the Kolmozorv-Smirnov Test of significance applied. Results indicated significantly greater gains for 5th- and 11th-grade experimental students, small but insignificant gains for the 8th-grade experimental group. This was a favorable finding, since the aim was to keep achievement on this measure at least the same for the experimental as compared to control groups. On the Negro History Test, highly significant gains for the experimental groups, as compared to control, were found at each grade level. On the Watson-Glaser test the 11th graders scored significant gains in the treatment groups compared to control. The researchers concluded that the first 3 goals were achieved.

With regard to attitude development, the researchers concluded that the program had been unsuccessful. This was based on the findings that the student record of activities indicated most students did not increase their activities related to "human dignity" (some increased, but some also decreased) and that teacher-observation checklists indicated most students did not show improvement in intergroup relations, although only 2 of 261 showed a deterioration and about 1/3 improved. (Data from a pre- and post-attitude inventory with 11th graders will not be available until November, 1969, after the post-test is administered.) Noteworthy is the lesser change observed among 11th graders.

Two-thirds of the teachers reported they had been very successful in teaching American history, and about 80% perceived some positive change in students' attitudes toward various ethnic groups. But teacher-attitudes toward the program stratified along grade lines with 5th-grade teachers being the most satisfied and 11th-grade teachers the least satisfied. This is supported by

Negro history achievement test data, analysis of student activities records, and teacher observation checklists. (While achievement gains at all grade levels were significant, the mean score difference was the smallest between the 11th-grade experimental and control groups.)

DOS

Murray, T.R., dir., and others. Project GBSS (Government and English for Senior Students Fairfax, Va.: The Department of Research and Program Development, Fairfax County Public Schools, October 20, 1969. (mimeo) 45 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study aimed to develop improved teaching-learning models for 12th-grade government and English with a combined course of study, using a team-teaching approach for 50 students of low achievement. It involved activity-centered methods of teaching with reduced emphasis on reading.

Fifty students entering the 12 grade were selected on the basis of: (1) scores below the 60th percentile on the SCAT Verbal and STEP Reading Tests, (2) past achievement in both English and social studies at the D and F level, (3) teacher recommendations, and (4) intelligence. These selected seniors were labeled the "pilot study group." A control group was selected from another school, using the same criteria employed in selecting the pilot study group. The control group took the established courses, American government and English 12.

The teaching team consisted of 3 highly qualified teachers in English, government, and guidance. A 2-hour block of morning class time facilitated scheduling of field trips, films, and speakers. Three days a week were team-taught, the other 2 days were devoted to enrichment activities or group work.

Results included the following conclusions:

(1) the project group tended to score higher on the Cooperative Government Test than did the control group; (2) while the project group ranked lower than the control group on the STEP Reading Test, the former improved more in reading (None of these differences were statistically significant.); (3) staff observations and student questionnaire replies indicated that the project group had improved in their general attitude toward school, their community, and themselves; and (4) the staff felt that the field trips helped to relax classroom atmosphere and had a cohesive effect on the group.

Limitations included: (1) the samples were not randomly selected; (2) researchers' abandonment of the first control group (because too many "top" students were in it) reflects [illegible]

in design; (3) none of the changes found were statistically significant; and (4) control group attitudes were not ascertained.

WGG

Neidell, Sophie G. An Exploration of Young Children's Concepts of People of Foreign Origin and Implications for Kindergarten Curricula. New York, N.Y.: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965. (dissertation) 285 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained,
TECHNIQUE: survey, description
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: incisive but subject
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

As originally conceived, this study aimed to determine the status of kindergarten children's concepts of other people, particularly those who looked and dressed differently. As the study finally evolved, the first phase attempted to discover what concepts children had of American Negroes and Orientals, the second phase was designed to determine whether kindergarten children who had certain home experiences were building stereotypic concepts about Negroes and Orientals with whom they had contact. The data for phase I were gathered by individual interviews with each child. Interviews were recorded on tape and by questionnaire; responses were elicited from the children to large photographs depicting children in native dress from several foreign countries including Negroes and Orientals. These data were gathered from 78 kindergarten children from high, middle and low socio-economic classes.

The data for phase 2 were gathered from 82 kindergarten children from similar middle-class environments. These children were categorized as (1) those who had Negro and Oriental children as classmates, (2) those who had a Negro teacher, and (3) those who were all Caucasian with no personal contacts with people of other races. Individual interviews were again used but in this phase the children were shown photographs that would reveal their concepts of the occupations, economic and social status of Negroes and Orientals. Parental questionnaires were also employed to determine how the children got their information and what home experiences might have contributed to their knowledge of these other peoples.

Social and economic classifications of the children were determined by the researcher on the basis of the types of houses in the community, their size and price category. The opinions of the administrators of the 3 schools were considered in the establishment of the social-economic classes of the subjects.

There was evidence to support the belief that kindergarten children tended to classify persons in relation to the functions they saw them perform. The most common image was that of the Negro as a maid. Apparently, experiences contributed heavily to the kinds of concepts children develop about other people. Children in the middle-class stratum had opportunities to observe persons

of other races and nationalities mostly in menial, unskilled roles. Since their contacts were confined to such relationships, children associated certain items (tools of work) and clothing with individuals in accordance to the way they had seen them perform.

The data indicate that children have the concept that Negroes and Orientals have less money and fewer possessions than whites. The researcher contends that the construction of children's concepts at this age are in direct relation to their experiences which are usually incidental and seemingly insignificant to the adults in their environment. However, in those instances where the researcher manipulated the environment to bring the children's attention to Negro and Oriental adults in a seemingly incidental fashion, the differences among people did not stand out and were not verbalized by the children.

The researcher also draws implications for kindergarten curriculum, which are: (1) incidental (home) experiences help build limited concepts which, if not extended by meaningful experiences, can become entrenched stereotypes. (2) youngsters cannot help classifying people in certain roles, and if these images are allowed to solidify, additional impressions and information later in school or home would have little impression on them, and (3) the critical stage for developing positive concepts of other peoples is in the early years of childhood.

Because of the lack of precision in determining social-economic classes in the study, it seems to this reviewer that any statements made on the basis of this study must be made in light of the total group of children and not in terms of high, middle and low socio-economic classification.

North, Robert D. Evaluation Report for the ESEA Title III Project South Bronx Multi-Purpose Supplementary Educational Center (SOMPSEC). The New York City Board of Education. Brooklyn, N.Y.: The Psychological Corporation, October, 1968. (mimeo) ERIC ED 026 690. 51 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This center contains an auditorium, Negro and Puerto Rican Heritage Rooms, the African Room, the Puerto Rican Art Gallery, as well as other related areas. Students from the area are disadvantaged (Puerto Rican and Negro). Instruction is by means of a tour lasting 3 hours. Saturday classes are conducted for those students interested in learning more (estimated at 500 a week). There are no data supporting effectiveness of Saturday classes. A questionnaire was given to 188 students immediately after a visit to the center. This was to determine students' enjoyment of their visit. Student reaction was judged highly favorable (however, only 45% expressed interest in Saturday classes). Pre- and post-questionnaries were given 547 students for matched items. This revealed "that the program helped the students gain better understanding and appreciation of the contributions that have been made by minority groups...," but no evidence was obtained to show an increase in self-concept.

WGG

Portugaly, Drora. A Study of the Development of Disadvantaged Kindergarten Children's Understanding of the Earth as a Globe.
New York, N.Y.: Teachers College Columbia University, 1967.
(dissertation) 303 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

On the basis of the pre- and post-test comparisons and the observational data recorded by the researcher, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The children studied began to develop basic understandings of geography.

2. The children studied could deal with models and use the tools of the geographer.

3. For the children studied, the school was their main source of information.

4. During the period of the study, the children began showing attitudinal changes toward learning activities.

5. During the period of the study, the children began to develop intellectual curiousity.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether kindergarten children could learn geographic concepts through manipulative activities. The study contained no specific hypothesis to be tested; however, this writer surmises that the hypothesis tested was: that there is no significant difference in the gain scores between pre- and post-test with curriculum methods being the intervening variables for the kindergarten children studied.

The design of the study involved pre- and post-testing one group of 21 children. There was no control group. The pre- and post-tests were constructed from behavior goals that the researcher validated with a team of early-childhood education specialists. The tests required either a verbal- or an action-response from the subjects. The pre-test was administered to the children to determine the extent of geographic knowledge they possessed prior to instruction and functioned as the benchmark for comparison with the results of the post-testing.

The second part of the study dealt with the type of program the researcher devised and taught to carry out the purpose of

the study. The researcher identified geographic content goals, then translated the content goals into behavioral goals. The behavioral goals were then taught through a structured curriculum program (the major methodological elements of which were taught through manipulative devices and activities). Each session of the program consisted of one activity only over a duration of 30 to 45 minutes. Although most sessions were held in small groups, activities such as storytelling, dramatics, games and riddles, were performed with the whole class. There were other activities, such as working with sandtrays, or making drawings of the school and its vicinity that were practiced individually. An example of a behavioral goal is as follows: "When our right hand is toward the East, the West is to our left hand, the North is in front of us, and the South is behind us." An activity used to teach this goal was "Outdoor games to locate all four directions... in relation to the position of the sun..." There were a total of 16 behavioral goals included under the topics Earth-Sun Relationships, Directions, or Spatial Relationships, Geographic Features and activities classified under the same headings. For this work the children were taught in 3 groups so that the researcher taught the same lesson 3 times each morning to the 3 groups.

The population consisted of 21 Negro children in one classroom of a depressed neighborhood school in New York City. The school was designated as a "special service" school.

The data were collected by means of an individual oral performance test. The researcher also collected extensive observational notes on the reactions of the children to the curriculum throughout the study.

On the pre-test the children's scores ranged from scores of 7 to 54 with a mean score of 20. The post-test scores ranged from 16 to 70 with a mean score of 52. Differences in scores between the pre- and post-test administration (gain score) were the basis for the t-test that was then administered. The t-test yielded a significance which, if the hypothesis had been stated in the null form, would have caused the researcher to reject the hypothesis of no difference and conclude that the program caused a significant difference (improvement) in the children's knowledge.

DOS

Potterfield, James E. An Analysis of Elementary School Children's
Ability to Learn Anthropological Content at Grades Four, Five,
and Six. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1966.
(dissertation) 86 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

The study was undertaken to ascertain if placement of the unit "Concept of Culture" in grades 5 and 6 would substantially change pupil performance, since it had been already demonstrated that 4th grade pupils could benefit from instruction in the unit.

The major hypothesis was that there was no significant difference in achievement of 4th, 5th, and 6th grade children on the unit tests. Subordinate hypotheses related to the non-significance of teacher preparation and social class.

There were two experimental groups and one control group for grades 4, 5, and 6. Experimental group one was taught by the investigator, a member of the Anthropology Curriculum Project Staff; experimental group two was taught by a regular elementary teacher who had no previous training in anthropology. A control group was administered the pre- and post-tests, but did not receive the treatment.

Treatment consisted of the 4th-grade unit, "Concept of Culture," developed by the Anthropology Curriculum Project (elementary) at the University of Georgia. The "Concept of Culture" unit is an anthropology unit which may be used in a social studies program. The experimental time allocated for the unit was 20 days. Ethnographies, around which the unit develops concepts, deal with the Arunta, Kazak, and American. In addition to pupil text, material consists of a series of teacher ethnographies, teacher manual, and pre- and post-tests. Typical class periods consisted of introduction of new terms, reading in pupil text, class discussion of text materials, discussion of questions in study guide, written assignments, and art work. A class scrapbook was compiled showing other cultures.

The population of the study consisted of five whole classes in the 4th, 5th, and 6th grades of the Oglethorpe County School District in a rural area of Georgia. A 6th grade class for control purposes was provided in a nearby rural-suburban school. All experimental and control pupils were white.

Pupil characteristics were: Total N: X-150; C-64

By Grades	4	5	6	N
X1	22	20	29	71
X2	30	22	27	79
C	24	21	19	64

By Social Status

	X	C		X	C
I	4	3	IV	69	26
II	3	2	V	47	25
III	27	8	N	150	64

By STEP Pre-Test Level,

	4X	5X	6X	NX	NC
High	17	13	17	57	22
Middle	17	13	25	55	18
Low	18	16	14	48	24

Data were collected on the:

(1) Hollingshead Two Factor Index of Social Position; (2) Anthropology Curriculum Project Form 4A and Form 4B, Revised, a 37-item, 4-foil multiple choice test, measuring concepts, abstract reasoning, and vocabulary, (post-test reliability 0.763, KR20: median item difficulty 0.58); and (3) STEP (Sequential Test of Educational Progress), Social Studies Achievement Level 4, Forms A and B. The STEP pre-test was used to assign pupils to high, middle, and low performance categories.

The Test Scorer and Statistical Analysis 2 (TSSA) program was used for anthropology test-item analysis; test reliability was calculated by Kuder-Richardson formula 20. A least squares analysis of variance and covariance was used to test differences in means of final experimental data. Ducan's New Multiple Range Test designed for unequal sample size was applied to determine which means differed significantly.

On post-test anthropology scores the main effects of grade, sex, socio-economic status, and level were not significant; the main effect of treatment was significant at the .01 level. Interaction effects of grade by treatment, and treatment by level were not significant but grade by level was significant at the .05 level. Both covariants were significant, pre-test in anthropology at the .01 level and STEP at the .05 level. Significant gains were made in concept reasoning, abstract reasoning, and vocabulary for experimental one or two classes with no change in the control classes; for both experimental 1 and 2 treatments, mean raw gains were largest in the 4th and smallest in the 6th grades. Fifth and 6th-grade children did not score significantly differently from 4th-grade children on the 4th-grade unit "Concept of Culture" prepared by the Anthropology Curriculum Project. The multiple-range tests, however, did show that 5th and 6th-grade children at all levels, as measured by STEP pre-test, tended to perform higher than 4th-grade children, but with smaller increments. Previous experience in social studies is not sufficiently significant to place higher grade children at a substantial advantage. This may indicate that emphasis on grade level, based on conventional ideas of levels of social studies may have a restrictive impact on social studies learning.

As measured by pupil performance on the Anthropology Achievement Test, specialized training in anthropology on the part of the teacher made little difference in the successful teaching of the unit. The testing results indicate that the material can be used in regular elementary teachers'settings without specialized training.

In general, school performance is correlated with an estimated class position. Typically, the higher the socio-economic status, the higher the mean performance. In this study, social status was not significant. It is probable that the technical nature of the anthropology unit, new in content to children of high as well as low status, minimizes the achievement differences usually associated with class position. This may indicate that the structured discipline approach followed by the Anthropology Curriculum Project may be especially useful for young learners of low social class.

Highly significant gains in anthropology achievement at the 3 grade levels indicate that intermediate elementary children can learn the vocabulary and concepts and develop facility in abstract reasoning as measured by Anthropology Curriculum Project tests. The STEP Level Four Social Studies Achievement Test is so lacking in anthropology specific test items that achievement gains in anthropology are not reflected in post-test STEP increments. The small size of the sample and limited number of teachers, however, precludes overgeneralization. These points require further examination.

MJR

Ratcliffe, Robert H., dir. Evaluation of Law in American Society Project 1968-69 Academic Year. Chicago, Ill.: Board of Education, City of Chicago and The Chicago Bar Association, June 24, 1969. (mimeo) 61 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The main objective of this social studies curriculum development and teacher training program is to enhance the student's general understanding and appreciation of the role of law in American society. Long-term goals also include a respect for law and order, an awareness of individual rights and fair procedures, and a willingness to behave in accordance with their new knowledge and attitudes. These goals are to be achieved by development of law curricula for Chicago inner-city schools within the regular social studies classes. Teacher training in the newer modes of social studies instruction, more specifically inquiry training, is a concomitant feature.

The curricular materials are an outgrowth of a series of summer institutes begun in 1966. Working with law professors and curriculum specialists, teachers developed these materials. Units from the summer institutes underwent a series of field tests, evaluations, and revisions. Other materials include casebooks for each of grades 5, 7 and 8, and for high school American history, and a teacher handbook for each grade or school level. An "Urban Law Series" of 7 booklets was produced for 9th-grade community civics and/or 12th-grade American government.

Examination reveals that the designers relied heavily upon case studies. In addition, the teachers' manuals contain directions for word games, role playing, simulations, field trips, mock trials and enrichment activities. An extensive variety of learning activities emphasizes student involvement. The materials and learning activities suggest that the designers made a commitment to a project-developed, eclectic model of inquiry-oriented teaching.

Final editions of the experimental materials for grades 5, 7, 8, 9, 11 and 12 developed at the 1968 Summer Institute were tested during the 1968-1969 academic year. Testing included a pre-test-post-test attitude survey. Both sets of instruments were created locally and specifically for evaluation of the law program. Reliability for the tests are reported at a generally accepted figure. No validity figures are reported.

A 5% sample of approximately 17,000 participating inner-city

students receiving the law program instruction were tested. The experimental classes for each grade level were randomly selected from all students enrolled in the classes using Law in American Society materials. The control samples were selected from students of the same age from inner-city schools near the experimental schools.

The achievement tests results indicate that the experimental groups, with the exception of the 9th-grade groups, performed significantly higher (at the .001 level or greater) than the control groups. The 9th-grade achievement test scores indicated no significant difference. The project director explained that 9th-grade materials arrived late, were not used as intended (in some cases only as supplemental materials) and are quite different from the normal 9th-grade social studies course.

The Chicago Opinion Panel, a 25-item attitude survey, was constructed specially for use in the project. The Panel (scale) was administered to the experimental and control groups before and after the classroom use of experimental materials. Apparently the sampling procedures and the experimental and control groups were the same as in the achievement testing.

The Panel writers subjectively determined preferred responses among the 5 choices on each survey item. Experimental and control group scores are reported by number of preferred responses on the pre-test and post-test. Significant attitude shifts toward preferred responses were evidenced in each grade except the 9th. The same circumstances involved in achievement testing of the 9th grade apparently adversely influenced also the Panel results.

Approximately 220 teachers had participated in the summer institutes through the summer of 1968. An additional 80 teachers enrolled in the 1969 Institute brought to 300 the total who had received the training in methods through which knowledge of law might be developed in their students.

The 1968 Summer Institute presented a carefully constructed course of studies aimed at changing teacher attitudes toward more use of inquiry in the classroom. To determine the effectiveness of the institute in this regard, each participant reacted to a pre- and post-attitudinal survey to measure pro- and anti-inquiry attitudes. A small sampling of teachers were chosen for classroom observations.

The 15 teachers in observed Group A received systematic inquiry training. Group B, 10 teachers, designated a non-inquiry group, also attended the summer institute, but did not receive systematic inquiry training. Group C, a control group, was matched to the experimental group. Classroom observations were made before and after the institute. Evaluations were based upon a modified form of Flanders' Interaction Analysis. Observation findings supported the hypothesis that the experimental group would change in the direction of inquiry-orientation. The inquiry teachers were judged most effective in classroom instruction and most able to engage students in meaningful, analytic thought processes. The project reporters concluded that unless teachers are given a systematic and intensive introduction to inquiry, little or no change will occur.

LMS

Roth, Rodney. The Effects of "Black Studies" and Teacher Authoritarianism on White Students' Attitude Change Toward Negroes. Houston, Tex.: Paper presented to the National Council for the Social Studies, 1969.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale implied
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

The stated primary purpose of this study was to discover changes in the attitudes of white students toward Negroes after exposure to Black Studies. The researcher pre- and post-tested white 5th-grade students in segregated and integrated classes to assess racial attitudes. Results indicated that treatment brought about no positive attitude change for whites in segregated schools, but when treatment was applied in integrated classes, the results indicated whites' attitudes toward Negroes improved significantly. The study concluded therefore that Black Studies is most effective in integrated classes if the intent is to improve attitudes of white children toward Negroes.

WGG

Rousch, Robert E. "Changing Teacher Behavior with Videotape Feedback," SRIS Quarterly, Phi Delta Kappa, Bloomington, Ind. Summer, 1969, pp. 21-24.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

Unfortunately the variable of subject (as among reading, social studies, and science) was not controlled in this carefully conceived study involving refined analysis of data gathered by videotaping actual classroom teaching of disadvantaged students in 6 local schools. Subjects were 25 Teacher Corps interns at the University of Houston (spring 1968), varying considerably in sex, age, experience, educational background, geographical origin, and race (4 Negro). Random numbers assigned the teachers to one of five groups, and to each group one of five treatments: video feedback only; video-audio feedback; audio feedback only; video-audio critique and typescript; and no feedback (control). During a 15-day period each intern was videotaped 3 times for 20 minutes each. Videotapes were coded by 2 independent analysts recording behavior every 3 seconds using Flanders Verbal Interaction Analysis System. Behaviors included: accepting feeling, praising or encouraging, accepting ideas, asking questions, lecturing, giving directions, criticizing, student talk-response, student talk-initiation, and silence or confusion. Data were entered into a matrix; correlations between coders ranged from .85 to .95. The researcher found no significant differences (at .05 level) between groups' means related to the types of treatments, to the time interval between treatment sessions, or to the interactions of treatments and time interval. He inferred from these neutral results that there were no demonstrable differences in effects of the varying treatments. He concluded that, in view of favorable findings in research studies at Stanford and the high repute of videotape feedback, further research is necessary.

JCH

Schnepf, Virginia. A Study of Political Socialization: Negro Children's Knowledge of and Attitudes Toward the Police, Law, and Freedom. Urbana, Ill.: University of Illinois, 1966. (dissertation) 122 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This research focuses squarely on urban elementary Negro children's knowledge and attitudes toward the U.S. legal system and law enforcement authorities and institutions. The major purpose of the study was to determine whether Negro children's views were as positive as reported for comparable socio-economic status white children.

The researcher developed an open-ended interview instrument with about five questions relative to the role of police, judiciary, attitude toward law, and attitude toward freedom. Positive and negative categories were established for the answers and data were analyzed by chi square for relationship to age-grade levels, sex and family stability. The interviewed population was drawn from 2nd, 4th and 6th grades of Hayes school in a segregated area of Urbana-Champaign and 8th graders in Urbana Junior High who had previously attended Hayes. The total number of students in all grades was 104. About 30% came from families where the father was absent; where he was present 25% were unskilled workers, 27% skilled, and about 17% were white collar workers, military or professional.

Important findings were: (1) a significant negative outlook toward police and freedom, increasing with age through the 6th grade, with generally positive attitudes expressed by 2nd graders, and 8th graders significantly positive toward freedom; (2) no significant difference in attitudes between boys and girls; (3) no significant difference in attitudes between children coming from stable or unstable (father absent) families.

The researcher concluded that the interviewed children had substantial information on the judicial process and judicial roles and that children were able to support their opinions about police with specific reasons. The 2nd graders positive views toward police may have been due to the social studies unit on the policeman (as helper). The emerging negative views possibly imply revision of the school program to provide specific instruction about police, law enforcement, and the legal system.

MJR & DOS

Scott, Ellis Bryan. A Survey of Educational Programs for Agricultural Migrant Children During 1967. Las Cruces, N.M.: New Mexico State University, May, 1968. (dissertation) ERIC ED 26 178. 119 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

Scott sent data accumulation forms to 183 schools identified by State Department of Education as having migrant education programs. Among his findings were: (1) Social Sciences are one of the least emphasized curriculum areas in migrant schools, and (2) Social Sciences are considered the least difficult subject area for the migrant children.

WGG

Sexton, Patricia Cayo. Education and Income Inequalities of Opportunity in Our Public Schools. New York, N.Y.: Viking Press, 1961. 248 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: description
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on a ficticiously named midwestern city and is a sociological study of the relationship between school success and and socio-economic status. The only data that have direct relationship to social studies and the disadvantaged are those presenting the failure rate of high school students in social studies and English. These data are:

Percentage of Failures

Income Group	Social studies	English
$5,000	14.6%	16.8%
6,000	13.9%	10.9%
7,000	12.7%	9.3%
8,000	10.2%	8.5%
9,000	7.9%	6.6%

Previous sections establish the hypothesis of a direct relationship between income group and rate of failure (failure rate in 2 or more school subjects in the lowest income group was 42% but compared to 28% in the highest income group).

Social studies and English were required subjects in the high school so the failure rates in these 2 subjects were compared by income group.

There was not enough information present for the writer to make a valid determination of the quality of the data collected.

MH

Sloan, Irving. The Negro in Modern American History Textbooks (3rd edition). Washington, D.C.: American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO, 1968. 88 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: background

ABSTRACT

With a research grant from the American Federation of Teachers, Sloan selected 23 of the latest editions (1964-1967 copyright) of secondary school American history textbooks for the purpose of determining how the Negro is represented.

His criteria are those formulated by a panel of historians at the University of California for use in The Negro in American History Textbooks. In summary, they concern: (1) Negro participation in historical events should be recognized in the narration and illustrations of the textbook; (2) Accurate portrayal of oppressive social and political conditions and economic deprivation endured by Negroes; (3) Sympathetic treatment of aims of abolitionists and radical reconstructionists; and (4) Inclusion of significant, even though controversial, events involving ethnic groups (violence against Negroes by racists groups, long history of conflict between races, and the Civil Rights Movement).

His findings may be summarized as follows: (1) only one text shows Negroes coming to the New World before the English colonists; (2) a few texts cling to the romanticism of slavery as a happy condition; (3) none of the texts give enough attention to Negro participation in the abolition movement; (4) most texts give inadequate treatment to the participation of Negroes in the Revolutionary and Civil Wars; (5) most texts portray the Negro as "just a slave" before the Civil War, and as a "problem" afterward; and (6) very few texts go beyond the Supreme Court Decision of 1954 and the Civil Rights Laws in accounting for the Civil Rights movement. Sloan concludes that most of these newer editions are giving a fairer treatment of the Negro than earlier editions, but that shocking exceptions still remain.

Since this is basically an impressionistic, one-man study, its degree of reliability is perhaps limited. But its findings accord generally with other surveys of textbook treatment of Negroes.

WGG

Smith, Twila M.W. The Place of History in Elementary School Social Studies: A Proposed Program to Include the Role of Negro Americans. Austin, Tex.: University of Texas, 1967. (dissertation) 214 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: tangible and impressionistic
ANALYSIS: vague
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This researcher aimed to develop and pilot test a "model" program for history in elementary schools, including especially the role of Negroes in American history and topics important for Negroes as well as other children. She also sought to evaluate the program in relation to teacher reactions and use. One teacher and one class in each of 6 grades in an Austin, Texas, elementary school (totalling 6 Negro teachers and 180 mostly non-white pupils) participated. Most of the classes were homogeneously grouped. There was no control group.

No hypotheses were identified. The research design related to a vague, oversimplifying, and incomplete "model" (2 charts) for elementary history from another source. The researcher developed teacher guides for 2 or 3 "depth studies" in history, and selected one for each of 6 grades. Six criteria for content selection included 2 emphasizing American Negroes and one stressing historical method. Six group training sessions for teachers included overview, demonstration lesson for each grade, and discussion, plus a follow-up individual conference with each teacher.

During 2 weeks of program tryout, the researcher was available for consultation, and teachers were to write criticisms of lesson plans. Because teachers requested them, researcher furnished daily lesson plans and instructional materials, (printed and audiovisual), including reproductions of original historical sources. "Depth studies" outlined appeared to this reviewer to include quite little on role of Negro Americans in history except in grade 4 and somewhat in grade 6. Researcher acknowledged little teacher receptivity to, and even less teacher use of, instructional content concerning Negroes. After tryout, the researcher had a conference with each teacher to elicit reactions. Classes were aural-tape recorded and rated by a team of 3 recorder-observers as to actual use of suggested "processes" (mostly general types of procedures and questions to ask pupils).

Tabulation of uses by teachers of suggested "processes" was made by researcher and team of 3 recorder-observers who played back tapes. Otherwise only a few subjective impressions of teachers and of researcher and team were noted. The report mentioned considerable teacher hesitancy, evasiveness, apathy, ignorance gratitude, desire for specific aids, lack of instructional skills, and possible resentment at being chosen (by principal) for experiment or at white graduate student (but experienced teacher) researcher and observers. The only quantitative data reported that 6 teachers varied in using from 21 to 69% of the suggested "processes."

The researcher lacked control of selection of experimental teachers and students. Teachers provided extremely limited responses. No attempt was made to get pupil reactions or data on pupils' learning. The experimental material contained limited treatment of Negro Americans. The only lesson plans included in the report of the study are those for third grade.

JCH

Spears, Sol. Children's Concept Learning in Economics Under
Three Experimental Curricula. Los Angeles, Calif.:
University of California, 1967. (dissertation) 205 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: application

ABSTRACT

This study involved the development of an instrument to measure pupil achievement in economics, the comparison of differences in economics achievement among three experimental and control programs, the comparison of differences in economics achievement between students of middle and low socio-economic status (SES), and the determination of students' achievement in handling application test items as well as knowledge items.

Validity and reliability of the test instrument were accounted for by the researcher using a group of professional economists (validity) and the split-half method (reliability). The population sample consited of 106 middle and low SES students in four intact first grade classes in the Culver City Unified School District in California. Experimental programs were (1) modification of established social studies program; (2) pilot program in economics developed by the Joint Council on Economic Education (DEEP); (3) the first grade program Our Working World: Families at Work developed by Lawrence Senesh. The control group participated in the established school district social studies program. Each group had 17 weeks instruction.

The test instrument was used as a pre- and post-test. Pretest and IQ scores were used in the analysis of covariance. The test of significance for measuring differences in students' performance on items of knowledge and application was Wilcoxon's Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test.

Spears found significant differences in achievement for all three experimental groups at the knowledge, but not at the application level as compared to control, and no significant between-group difference for any of the three experimental curricula. He also found, not unexpectedly, that the middle SES students significantly outperformed low SES students. As a result the researcher concluded his study supported other research indicating that the learning style of low SES students "placed them at a disadvantage in the curriculum"

DOS

Stampp, Kenneth. The Negro in American History Textbooks: A Report of a Study of the Treatment of Negroes in American History Textbooks Used in Grades Five and Eight and in the High Schools of California's Public Schools. Sacramento, Calif.: California State Department of Education, June 1964. ERIC ED 017 586. 30 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: impressionistic
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

This report contains the findings of a panel of 6 American historians from the University of California at Berkeley regarding the treatment of the Negro in the 7 most widely used elementary and secondary American history textbooks in the state of California. The books reviewed were: Trail Blazers of American History; The Story of American Freedom; America Is My Country: The Heritage of a Free People; The Growth of America; Story of the American Nation; The Story of American Democracy; Story of America. They carried copyright dates from 1955 to 1962.

The panel established "...the substantive and interpretive elements relating to Negroes that should be included in textbooks covering the whole period of American history." This was considered a minimum acceptable criteria, and may be summarized as follows: (1) The Negro's participation in historical events should be recognized in the narration and illustrations of the textbooks; (2) An accurate portrayal of the oppressive social and political conditions as well as the economic deprivation endured by Negroes before, during, and after the Civil War; (3) Textbooks should treat the aims of abolitionists and radical reconstructionists sympathetically; and (4) Historical events of significance, although controversial by nature, must be included (particularly, the violence enacted against Negroes by racists groups, the long history of violence between the races, and the Civil Rights movement).

Generally, the reviews presented very unsatisfactory ratings of the California educational textbooks used in American history study. The main criticism is that the Negro is rarely seen in any form, except as a stereotype. Most of the criteria were not met in any of the books studied. It appeared the elementary texts were especially lacking. Many of the books took a neutral attitude toward slavery, avoiding a moral stand on the issue. A sweetening of the content, seemingly to avoid controversy, was widely applied by the books studied. The panel judged this a deceptive and dangerous practice. Like many other textbook surveys, this one reports a compilation of subjective judgments. Neither quantification of data nor evaluative ratings is reported.

WGG

Stoakes, Dean Wendell. *An Educational Experiment with the Homogeneous Grouping of Mentally Advanced and Slow Learning Students in the Junior High School*. Boulder, Colo.: University of Colorado, 1964. (dissertation) 262 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications.

ABSTRACT

The chief purpose of Stoakes' experiment was to determine whether significant differences in academic achievement (in all subjects) and personal and social adjustment could be obtained by homogeneously grouping students at both ends of the academic performance spectrum. Additionally, the reaearcher attempted to determine the quantity and type of curriculum enrichment materials requested by teachers for use with students in the study.

A total of 101 junior high students in 3 different Cedar Rapids, Iowa junior high schools were grouped in 4 classes. One group of academically-talented and one group of slow-learning 7th-grade students were placed in heterogeneously grouped classes. Another group of talented and another group of slow learners was placed in homogeneously grouped 7th-grade classes. Talented students scored 120 or better on the Otis IQ test and one year above grade norm on the Stanford Achievement Battery and also had a majority of "A" grades. Slow learners had an IQ of 70-95, scored one grade level below norm on the Stanford, and had below average or failing grades.

Instructional treatment involved use of a curriculum resource center that supplied materials and services at the request of teachers. Teachers were provided with an enrichment syllabus for use in their teaching. Prior to beginning instruction, teachers were required to participate in a series of in-service meetings. Briefly described meetings dealt with resource center functions and available services (including consultants), suggested teaching methods for enriching class sessions, and a review of the syllabus. Pre- and post-test instruments included the entire Stanford Achievement Battery, teacher-committee-prepared achievement tests (reliability and validity determined and data provided), California Test of Personality, and SRA Rating Scale for Pupil Adjustment.. Refined statistical analyses were utilized to compare data for the 4 groups. No control group was used.

Findings relative to social studies achievement were: (1) significant and substantial growth in achievement by both grouped and non-grouped students during the 2-year study; (2) no significant differences in achievement favoring homogeneously grouped students for either academically-talented or slow-learning students; (3) significant differences in achievement for non-grouped slow learners in social studies on 7th-grade teacher-made tests (and arithmetic on all achievement measures).

With regard to personal adjustment Stoakes found: (1) no significant differences occurred in teacher ratings of students; (2) significant difference among non-grouped slow learners in movement toward a positive self-concept as measured on the California Test; (3) change in non-grouped slow learners' views of themselves, diverging from the less favorable views teachers held of them, but no change in these students' opinions of how others viewed them. Thus while they personally gained a better self-image, they did not believe others shared that view.

The researcher found an increase in teacher requests for materials for all groups, but a greater increase among teachers of homogeneously grouped students. Teachers of slow learners requested materials supplemental to regular teaching units more than in preparation for planning new units of work, as characterized teachers of talented students.

The researcher concluded that homogeneous grouping made no significant difference in achievement, but it maintained a slow learner's view of himself consistent with teachers views of him. In contrast, heterogeneous groupings led to a more positive self-concept (but divergent from teachers' expectations of behavior pattern) and led to some greater, but not consistent, gains in achievement. Increased use by teachers of supplementary teaching materials, for non-grouped slow-learners, appeared to contribute to greater achievement gains of non-grouped slow learners.

DOS

Teahan, John E. Some Effects of Audio-Visual Techniques on Aspirational Level and Ethnocentric Shift: Final Report. Milwaukee, Wis.: University of Wisconsin, USOE Bureau of Research, September 1967. (mimeo) 188 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: implications, applications

ABSTRACT

This study attempted to detect attitudinal changes, if any, among Negro and white elementary and junior high pupils, as a result of having viewed a series of 12 films dealing with occupations and lives of successful Negro and white men.

The films presented 6 Negroes and 6 whites, and were shown in an "integrated" sequence, each lasting between 15 and 25 minutes. The men chosen as subjects were individuals from both races who had overcome racial prejudice, religious prejudice, poverty, illness, and other obstacles, and had become highly successful in their professions (sculptor, IBM systems engineer, federal judge, college professor, research chemist, to name several). The first part of each film showed the man at his place of work; the second part interviewed him with his family at his home.

The instruments used were: (1) a booklet containing 5 photos of anonymous males--2 Negroes and 3 whites of differing ages--was given to each of the students. They were instructed to guess the most likely occupation, the least likely occupation, and the personality of each male picture. A broad list of possible occupations and personality types was provided. (2) A Vocational Aspirations choice form was used to ascertain occupations the children "wished for" and the occupations they "predicted" they would actually achieve. (3) Social Survey Questions were used only in one all-white suburban junior high school in order to measure prejudice toward Negroes.

The researcher took elaborate precautions against the students associating the pre-testing and post-testing of the above instruments with the 12 films. His evidence confirms the success of the disguise.

The study was initiated in a small midwestern city, using elementary 5th and 6th graders and junior high 9th graders of both sexes and races. His samples were taken from 3 predominantly non-white elementary schools, a totally white suburban elementary school, a racially balanced (50-50) junior high school, and an all-white suburban junior high school.

103

On the Vocational Aspirations choice students from the non-white elementary school showed significant gains (.05 level) over their controls after having watched the films; Negro pupils from the integrated junior high school likewise showed significant gains (.01 level) over their controls. In both cases the gains came as a result of higher ratings in the "predictions" column; the "wished for" column actually showed a decrease. The reseacher interpreted this as a more realistic choice on the part of the students.

The photo technique was used with Negro elementary students, and indicated a significantly more negative attitude toward the white pictures (.05 level), yet no significantly more positive evaluation of Negro pictures occurred. In the integrated junior high school, it was found that different photos had different stimulus effects for these Negro students. A more negative evaluation of one particular white picture was far beyond the .01 level of significance, one Negro picture was rated more positively at the .01 level, whereas the other photos' ratings were different at non-significant levels. Teahan postulates that Bettelheim's finding (1943) that self-love produces outward rage toward the oppressor is reconfirmed by these findings.

The Social Survey Questions form was administered before and after the films in the all-white junior high school. No overall significant differences in attitudes toward Negroes were found. However, when father's occupation was considered, it was found that the higher socio-economic status pupils became more prejudiced toward Negroes (.05 level) while the lower socio-economic status pupils became less prejudiced (N.S., but just below the .05 level). Teahan feels the high socio-economic status pupils saw the Negroes in the films as potential threats to their father's jobs and to the racial unity of their neighborhoods. The photo technique produced similar, but statistically non-significant evidence.

In the integrated junior high school, an analysis of whites by socio-economic status revealed strong (but non-significant statistically) trends toward a higher degree of prejudice among lower socio-economic status whites and just the reverse for higher socio-economic status whites. Teahan sees this paradox in terms of the differences that exist between the white families who chose to flee to the suburbia (highly conscious of social status and prestige) and those who had the resources to leave but chose instead to remain (non-status oriented). He accounts for the more negative views of lower socio-economic status whites in terms of the "red-necked" philosophy of having someone around who is lower than they are; in this case, the Negro students. It is interesting to note that white students from this school gave overall higher ratings to Negro pictures than whites on the pretest of the photo technique.

The photo technique was employed in the all-white elementary school, and here there was no significant relationship found to exist between ratings of the photos and father's occupations. Significantly more favorable ratings of white and Negro photos came after having viewed the films. Teahan concludes that real attitudinal differences exist between elementary and junior high pupils in this community, and that more favorable results might be obtained generally in elementary grades.

A full replication of this study was attempted in a large eastern city, but the results were somewhat disappointing due to administrative difficulties. Briefly, the results were similar to those in the midwestern city, but not significantly so. It was found that lower class whites did change their attitudes favorably toward Negroes after the films. A rating of the films was carried out here to see if those who were prejudiced toward Negroes tended to down-grade the films that dealt with the Negro men. No significant correlations were found.

WGG

Thomas, Georgelle. The Use of Programed Instruction for Teaching Anthropology in the Fifth Grade. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia, 1967. (dissertation) 74 pages. "Programmed Instruction for Teaching Anthropology in the Fifth Grade," Journal of Experimental Education," vol. 36, summer, 1968, pp. 88-92.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: experimental
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This study compares the achievement of 5th-grade students using programed instructional materials in anthropology with 5th-grade students being taught by traditional classroom techniques. The major null hypothesis was that there is no significant difference in performance between students taught by traditional classroom methods and students using programed instructional material. Minor hypotheses related to the relationships of race, reading ability, and interactions to performance and time required for instruction.

An experimental design was utilized, in which the experimental group was taught by a specially constructed programed text and the comparison group was taught using the regular 5th-grade materials of the Anthropology Curriculum Project (elementary) at the University of Georgia. There was no non-treatment control as the experimental learning tasks were not a part of regular school learning and are instructionally specific to the treatment.

Subjects included 320 5th-grade students in 14 Georgia classrooms in 6 schools. There were 176 children in the experimental group, 143 white and 33 Negro. There were 144 children in the comparison group, 111 white and 33 Negro. The only pupils reported were present for all testing sessions. There was a 21% loss because of pupil absence.

The experimental materials consisted of a programed text "Archeological Methods" written by the investigator. It parallels the chapter in the 5th-grade pupil text The Development of Man and His Culture: Old World Prehistory. The programing format combines the linear and branching approaches. Concepts are presented in a linear fashion. Generalizations and applications are handled by the branching method.

To provide for parallel content in the programed and narrative text, the narrative text was analyzed for major concepts and understandings. Fifty major ideas were selected, for which pre- and post-tests were written. The programed text was written, piloted with a small sample of below average students, revised, used with a full classroom of pupils comprising a span of low to

high ability, and revised again. It was the final revision that was used in the experiment. Spache Reading formula gave a reading level of 2.9 for the programed text. This formula does not, however, give sufficient consideration to vocabulary loading, and it is assumed that the reading level was much higher.

Because of the introduction of many new words critical to the understanding of the unit, a 10-minute tutor tape and word book of 26 anthropological terms was developed. The words were not explained but were merely pronounced twice as the pupil flipped from one word-page to the next, associating the written form with the spoken word. Both experimental and comparison classes were provided with the books and tapes. The conventional classrooms were provided with the regular Project materials--teacher essay, pupil text, teacher manual, and pupil workbook. No in-service work was undertaken with the teachers. Investigator contact was limited to familiarizing teachers with the details of the experiment.

Instruction by conventional methods was restricted to 45 minutes a day for four days; the programed group was allowed to work in the text for four days, but not to exceed 45 minutes a day. The time sequence was: California Reading Test, tutor word book and tapes at least once daily, pre-test, Study of archeological methods, post-test.

Anthropology achievement was measured by the Archeological Methods Test, Form A and Form B. These are untimed, 50-item, four-foil multiple choice tests. Form A was used as a pre-test and Form B was used as the post-test. Reliabilities computed by Kuder Richardson Formula 20 were .785 and .908 respectively. The California Reading Test, Elementary Form W, was used to determine pupil reading level.

The Test Scorer and Statistical Analysis 2 program was used to score the archeological tests and to obtain pertinent analysis. Analysis of variance was used to determine if there were differences in experimental and conventional teaching groups on pre-test and reading. A modified treatment-by-level analysis of variance of post-test scores were used for main effects of treatment, sex, race, reading level, and interactions. Mean completion time of programed text completion was computed.

Analysis of variance indicated no significant differences in the programed or conventional classroom groups by reading level or pre-test performance. Race was a significant variable (.01) in reading and pre-test performance, with Negro performance less than that of the white pupils. No significant differences were found in performance by treatment groups. However, the conventional classes required 180 minutes compared to a mean of 91 for the programed classes. Race and reading level were both significant (.01) but the interactions of treatment by race and treatment by reading were non-significant.

While there was no difference in performance by method of treatment, the distribution of scores of the conventional group was more homogenous than that of the experimental group. Score distribution confirms what is frequently stated: conventional classroom instruction is aimed primarily at the middle group, and both extremes--

low as well as high performing students--are handicapped. There were more high scores in the programed group, which indicates that the abler student profited more from programed instruction. This suggests a practical means for individualized instruction.

Negro students achieved less well than white students. However, the percentage gains by race are comparable. Reading ability, however, is positively correlated with school achievement. In this study, there was a correlation of .756 with reading achievement and post-test scores. Since the adjusted means on the California Reading Test were substantially lower--55.4 compared to 84.1--the difference in anthropology achievement is to be expected.

Scores on the California Reading Test were used to assign pupils to three levels of reading ability, Level 1, less than fourth; Level 2, 4 through six; and Level 3, 7th through 8th. A positive and significant relationship was found between reading and post-test performance (.01).

Interactions by treatment and reading and treatment and race were non-significant. This provides further evidence that the Negro student is no more handicapped under programed methods of instruction than under conventional methods. It also indicates that while poor readers perform less well in anthropology than abler readers, they are no more handicapped in programed than in conventional instruction.

The time factor in this study substantially favored the programed text. Unfortunately data were not reported as to mean completion time by reading level and it can be assumed that the abler readers finished the books more quickly.

There was no attempt to collect formally appraisals from pupils and teachers. Informal remarks were favorable. The tutor-tape word book was well received in both the regular and experimental classes, and appeared to be a motivational factor for subsequent learning. Teachers were favorably impressed with the way pupils used the programed text.

MJR

Uphoff, James Kent. Senior High School Social Studies Programs for Low Achievers. Lincoln, Neb.: University of Nebraska, 1967. (dissertation) 201 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: background, implications

ABSTRACT

Uphoff surveyed secondary instructional staff views and practices related to teaching the low achiever in a sample of 84 senior high schools in cities of 25,000-100,000 population from throughout the United States. Much of the report is not pertinent to this Interpretive Study project. Key findings and conclusions include:

1. Grouping procedures were widely used and favored by teachers and administration although not considered an all-inclusive answer. No clear-cut criteria for grouping were evident.

2. Despite the widespread practice of grouping, few changes were made in content or methods of instruction for low achievers. Use of different materials was practiced, but not widely.

3. Where the size of classes was appreciably smaller than for other groups, teachers apparently exhibited greater enthusiasm, evaluated the program more highly, and reported greater pupil achievement, better student attitude, and more student interest.

4. Differences in materials utilization in programs for low achievers centered mainly on printed materials of easier reading level and this was considered one of the best aspects of the programs. The most highly rated materials were those produced by the school systems themselves. The few schools which made extensive use of audiovisual materials expressed a high degree of satisfaction with this element of their programs and saw the materials as fulfilling a key role.

5. Much attention and time were given in class to social studies skills development, but it was largely uncoordinated.

DOS

Wheeler, Robert, dir. Evaluation of the ESEA Program, Titlt I, September 1, 1967 through August 31, 1968. Kansas City, Mo.: Division of Urban Education and Department of Research Development, The School District of Kansas City, Missouri, October, 1968. (mimeo) 76 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: survey, experiment, testing
DATA: impressionistic, omitted
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: applications

ABSTRACT

This abstract is based on the evaluation of the Title I school population of the School District of Kansas City, Missouri, for the period September 1, 1967--August 31, 1968. The population was composed of 11,200 elementary and secondary students in both public and non-public schools.

The primary element of interest for the social studies is the Summer School Program, 1968. Pre- and post-test results from the Summer School Program, 1967, had indicated that those students who did not attend the summer session actually scored higher than those who did. The 1967 sessions were remedial in nature; perhaps better students stayed away. It was, therefore, decided that traditional instructional procedures should be replaced by an innovative summer program in which teachers were not supposed to use any standard textbooks; instead, they were provided with a general instructional theme My Community and Me and the following specific unit areas: Kindergarten, "Families"; grades 1 and 2, "More About Families"; 3 and 4, "The Big City"; 5 and 6, "The City Serves Us". Comparable emphases were set up for 7 and 8, but more formal and traditional courses were offered to 9 and 10. The learning experiences for the innovative courses were drawn from the immediate community of the individual school; curricula and materials were constructed at the classroom or grade level in each building.

Teachers were provided with a 90-minute planning period each day for the 6 weeks in elementary schools and the same time for the 8 weeks in secondary schools. Evaluation was to consist of (1) teachers' evaluations of their students' achievements on specific objectives, and (2) evaluation of the total program in a questionnaire. A pre-testing program was administered to all students in the spring of 1968. Retesting took place during the fall.

The following are results of the subjective reactions reported: (1) teachers indicated that "additional time for planning" and (2) the self-constructed materials were the most helpful things in making the program a success. Many teachers stated that they

could really meet the needs of the children by preparing an instructional unit especially for them. (3) Negatively, they felt the shortened instructional time did not afford them the opportunity to develop their lessons fully. (4) Although most of the teachers stated that the 1968 program was particularly effective and that the children learned more than before, the classification of pupil progress by teachers was not as high as in previous years. This is interpreted by the researchers as indicating that teachers' evaluations were more objective due to their increased involvement, that is, they were more aware of their goals and, therefore, had specific criteria to evaluate pupil progress.

In addition to the foregoing evaluation, testing programs prior to the Summer School Program had some discouraging results. The social studies battery of the Tests of Academic Progress were given to students 9-12 in 1967 and 1968. Not only were the scores in the lowest quartile; but also they showed significant deceleration in grades 10-12 and no significant gain for grade 9. It was noted that the books provided as texts in the social studies were too difficult for the reading level of the children using them (survey by University of Missouri Personnel, 1967).

A second summer school project report concluded during 1969 contained no new social studies data. The data collected dealt with reading.

WGG

Whitla, Dean K., and Janet P. Hanley. One Nation Indivisible: An Experiment in Nationwide Instructional Television Evaluation Report. Cambridge, Mass.: Educational Development Center, 1968. (mimeo) 338 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained but incomplete
TECHNIQUE: experiment
DATA: hard
ANALYSIS: refined
UTILITY: application

ABSTRACT

Late in the spring of 1968 E.D.C. conducted an experimental study, using a specially developed 5-lesson television course, on racial conflict in the U.S., distributed through NET to local ETV stations across most of the country. Approximately 200 classrooms were selected as a sample for evaluating effectiveness of the program, although reported data are for 105 to 155 classes. The sample represented ghetto-suburb, socio-economic status, junior high-senior high, black-white, and geographical regions excepting the South. Some research design problems are evident, principally because of the large number of participating students and teachers and resulting lack of variable controls. Aims of the experiment were: (1) increase in awareness of the racial problem, (2) increase in willingness to consider the position of (empathize with) people of "the other race," (3) tempering of one's rationalization of prejudice, (4) increase in allowing one's own feelings to come into awareness, (5) increase in dialogue about the racial problem and a legitimatizing of the topic as a school subject.

The research design included: a pre- and post-attitudinal inventory and information test; a classroom checklist including open-ended questions to provide data about classroom environment, student involvement, and evaluation of TV presentations and other instructional materials; a teacher-training program evaluation by teachers; observation and discussion analysis of a sub-sample; a sub-sample of student and teacher interviews.

Preparations for the investigation were somewhat rushed and minimal. Three additional TV programs were distributed for teacher in-service. Teacher-guides were generally non-directive in providing illustrative suggestions for teaching procedures and supplementary materials. Most of the three-fifths, of the sampled teachers, who completed questionnaires saw some or all of the teacher-training films. General teacher reaction was positive and apparently related to attendance during the in-service TV programs. Four out of five indicated willingness to use programs again, although one-half indicated they would handle them differently.

Findings, in terms of stated goals, were generally positive, although specification of underlying hypotheses is not clear.

Some hypotheses "emerge" in the discussion of data; others may have existed, but are unstated.

Researchers concluded that with few exceptions race was not a significant correlative factor. Sex was, in fact, a more significant variable, with males taking stronger positions in one direction or another as compared with females. One of the findings contradicts earlier research: Negro students in this study appear to have a stronger self-image than did the whites (p. 106). Pre- and post-test comparisons indicated 15% of the students changed their attitudes or beliefs about the racial issue, 10% in the direction of acceptance of an integrated society (the desired change), and 5% in a "negative" direction. Of the remainder 65% had already accepted "togetherness" as their view on the pre-test. Researchers considered "astonishing" the similar patterns of responses of all students and the consistency of change, reflecting the emphases of the program. Indeed, these are remarkable. In the short span of a few days curriculum materials, serving at least as catalyst, did bring changes in the difficult-to-measure area--the affective domain. But the study did not use a delayed post-test, and thus the "holding power" of the changes in unknown. Also the researchers' conclusions are frequently based on total raw number or percentage data, when in their judgment the weight of numbers seems more important than tests of statistical significance.

Researchers also report findings related to the teaching-learning situations. Male teachers apparently handled the discussion with more confidence and their classes generated more controversy and more emotion than was evidenced by women teachers' classes. Also, length of class discussion was related to the "value" or productiveness of discussion. Short discussions (10 minutes) were least effective; full period discussion (average of 40 minutes) were most effective; 20-minute discussions fell somewhere in-between. Researchers concluded that teachers generally did not possess skills or confidence necessary to lead "good" discussions (which they defined as expression of a wide range of views in an atmosphere of openness and movement toward critical appraisal of opinions and suggestions). Care in using these data is warranted in that they are limited to a sub-sample of 23 classrooms (9 men, 14 women teachers) and full information regarding teachers' academic preparation, specialization, and teaching experience is not provided.

DOS

Wilson, James Bruce. A Pilot Study Using Selected Published Materials in American History for Slow Learners. Waco, Tex.: Baylor University, 1967. (dissertation) 107 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure explained, rationale explained
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: tangible but not adequate
ANALYSIS: incisive but subjective
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Wilson evaluated and field-tested Jack Abramowitz's American History Study Lessons (Follett) with 11th-grade below-average students to determine the major problems associated with the development and implementation of a program for slow learners. The field-testing was carried on for one year in a single metropolitan high school of approximately 3,600 students serving an apparently predominantly white, native-born, middle socio-economic level population. Data are reported for 167 students in 6 classes taught by 3 different teachers. These students were selected largely on the basis of California Test of Mental Maturity Scores (68 to 90 IQ) achievement scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development (less than 34th percentile) and the ETS Cooperative English Test (less than 34th percentile). Pre- and post-achievement tests using the Crary American History Test and the Metropolitan Achievement Test (different forms) were administered. In addition, unit achievement tests accompanying the teaching materials were used.

The results of the study are not definitive because it lacks adequate experimentation and data treatment. While the subjective evaluation of the Abramowitz materials generally was favorable, little difference was recorded for the students as a group on pre- and post-achievement tests. Note, however, that no control groups were used and no tests of statistical significance were applied to the data. Still, it is particularly distressing to find that while some students improved their scores and information in social studies reading, skills, vocabulary, and information, others actually performed more poorly; and overall after a year of instruction, the majority showed little change in performance on the Metropolitan and Crary tests. However, teachers found achievement acceptable for most students (as measured on individual unit tests where mean performance on a 100% scale was 69% for 9 unit tests). One can only conclude, tentatively, that the teaching and teaching materials were ineffective; that the 2 standardized test instruments did not measure what was taught; that other factors including perhaps, school environment and staff attitudes negatively affected student performance to a marked degree; that the researcher's treatment of the data is grossly inadequate. Perhaps some or all of these reactions apply. In short, the study is inconclusive at best.

DOS

Young, Christine, dir. South Miami Junior High School Curriculum Project. Miami, Fla.: Dade County Public Schools, 1967. (mimeo) ERIC ED 023 763. 8 pages.

BASIC CHARACTERISTICS

DESIGN: structure implied, rationale implied
TECHNIQUE: testing
DATA: tangible butt not adequate
ANALYSIS: vague
UTILITY: implications

ABSTRACT

Fifty culturally deprived 7th graders were selected to participate in an experimental curriculum. Cumulative records were used in selection of students (60% Negro, 40% white). The curriculum was not purely social studies, rather social studies used as a vehicle in a communication-skills-oriented curriculum.

Description of the curriculum was incomplete. Usable data were STEP social studies pre- and post-test results: (1) post-test scores were significantly higher than pre-test scores; (2) scores were recorded above the national median on the post-test (none were above on pre-test). No score on the pre-test was above the 50th percentile of national norms. (3) most difficult to change were those pre-test scores in the lower quartile; and (4) the number of students falling below the 25th percentile decreased by 50%. Students were enrolled in a 3-hour block of social studies, language arts and science. Girls received one hour of home economics, boys one hour of shop. Each student received one hour of math and one hour of physical education. The students were divided into small groups for instruction and individualized instruction was practiced in these classes. Art and music were also correlated through the language-arts block.

In spite of a substantial social studies gain, the report does not emphasize social studies instruction. No control group is reported and treatment is discussed in general terms.

LMS

PART I: SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE DISADVANTAGED

There are a number of general as well as specialized books relating to the disadvantaged learner. Each book has both strengths and weaknesses. There is little disagreement as to characteristics of the disadvantaged learner. Lacking general agreement, however, are the most effective means, from the standpoint of resources, approaches, and learning gains, to be used with the disadvantaged. The general result is that recommendations for the disadvantaged are scarcely distinguishable from recommendations for the general school population.

The four books listed below may be of assistance to the social studies teacher or supervisor who wishes to get an over-view of the disadvantaged learner. Readers interested in specific groups of disadvantaged, such as Mexican-American, Indian, and Negro, will wish to refer to the more specialized literature that has recently become available.

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Appendix D

HOW THE STUDY WAS DONE: THE PROCESS OF RESEARCH SYNTHESIS

Great is the demand among school people for sound answers to practical questions, for well-based guidance through troublesome situations, and for tried and analyzed solutions to perplexing problems. Truly enough, people aplenty proffer self-styled solutions, top-of-head advice, and individual-experience-based guidance to improve schooling. Many students, numerous teachers, and lots of parents and other citizens "know" how schools should be run. But, fortunately, most educators seek seriously to find more solid bases for action in confronting crises, resolving dilemmas, and advancing school practices. Such bases often lie in the extensive research and development that has gained a growing role in American education during the past few years. But a large gap exists between R&D and school practices. Too often educational research goes unreported or inadequately reported. Usually it is reported piecemeal--one study or project at a time--and to a limited or perhaps inappropriate group. Thus much research and development have become little known, much less applied, among school people.

Developing the Proposal

Recognition of the great gap between R&D and schooling led the U.S. Office of Education to take steps that would bring the results of research to needful school groups. Announced in the winter of 1967-68, a new USOE program arose to sponsor the gathering of selected educational research findings and interpreting them to appropriate school personnel. Thus emerged the Targeted Communication (originally Interpretive) Study grants from USOE.

Origins. First announcement of the Targeted Communication Study program cheered several members of the Social Science Education Department at the University of Georgia. They, along with many colleagues across the country, greeted hopefully the news that educational research results would be brought together and reported. For the field of social studies had long been one of limited but finally growing research and development. Yet the fact of considerable R&D had not made results readily available. Most R&D projects had not disseminated their products widely. When they did make output available, it often did not include research findings. The communications gap had persisted.

Two Department members thereupon drafted a proposal involving several others and aiming to synthesize and interpret research of the 1960's concerning innovations in secondary school social studies. This proposal was unofficially understood to have ranked eleventh among the several dozen submitted and thus was not among the eight funded.

Preparation. During the following fall (1968) four faculty in the Department renewed their efforts to secure support for an Interpretive

Study in social studies. By then guidelines from OE had developed more fully and focused more specifically on the disadvantaged. Sensing the preference for that priority area, three members drafted a proposal to synthesize and interpret recent research and development in the area of social studies for and about the disadvantaged. A statement of intent and brief overview of the contemplated study brought from OE indication of general propriety and further information about procedures in submitting the proposal.

Meanwhile the team of three had proceeded with developing the proposal. A preliminary survey of professional literature concentrated on those synthesizing studies that reflected the status of R&D in the areas of social studies and the disadvantaged. Orders resulted in printout of limited research report citations from DATRIX and SRIS. Through conference of individual effort the team evolved objectives, general criteria, step-by-step procedures, an initial identification of locally available and other pertinent resources, and a budget. Contacts with selected representatives of the selected targeted audience, state and local social studies supervisors and curriculum directors, brought useful general reactions and suggestions. Within a few weeks the proposal was submitted. The accompanying official abstract summarizes the proposal's emphases.

About two months later the principal investigator heard from OE that the proposal was generally viewed favorably in-house and by outside reviewers. They suggested, however, the addition of outside evaluation, as well as the previously proposed in-house and Advisory Panel, evaluation of the project. Within two weeks this had been arranged with three alternative agencies, and an appropriate insert to the proposal was submitted. Shortly thereafter OE sent word officially approving the proposal. Thus alerted, the project professional staff planned and arranged appropriate modification of their schedules for the projected six-month activity. Selection of the project's two research assistants proceeded on the basis of previously submitted applications; and arrangements for a project secretary completed the staffing. As midyear approached, the prospecitive staff made ready to undertake their newly arranged duties.

Initiating the Project

With two months to complete preparations for beginning the project, the staff engaged in several preliminary activites. Members dug further into professional literature and indexes, identifying additional sources, references, and reports of possible use in the study. Preliminary invitations, to persons who had agreed to serve on the national Advisory Panel, seeking to identify an early, suitable meeting date. Administrative arrangements included preparing for personnel and budget.

Plan of work. A plan for carrying out project activities had been described in the proposal which also summarized them in PERT charts. Copies of these charts follow, indicating the general nature of procedures planned for the study. With only limited change, the

ABSTRACT

Title of Project: Interpretive Study of Research and Development in Social Studies and the Disadvantaged -- Phase I: Analysis and Implications

Principal Investigator: Jonathon C. McLendon, Professor and Head,
Social Science Education, College of Education

Contracting Agency: University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601

Amount of Federal Funds Requested: $39,310.

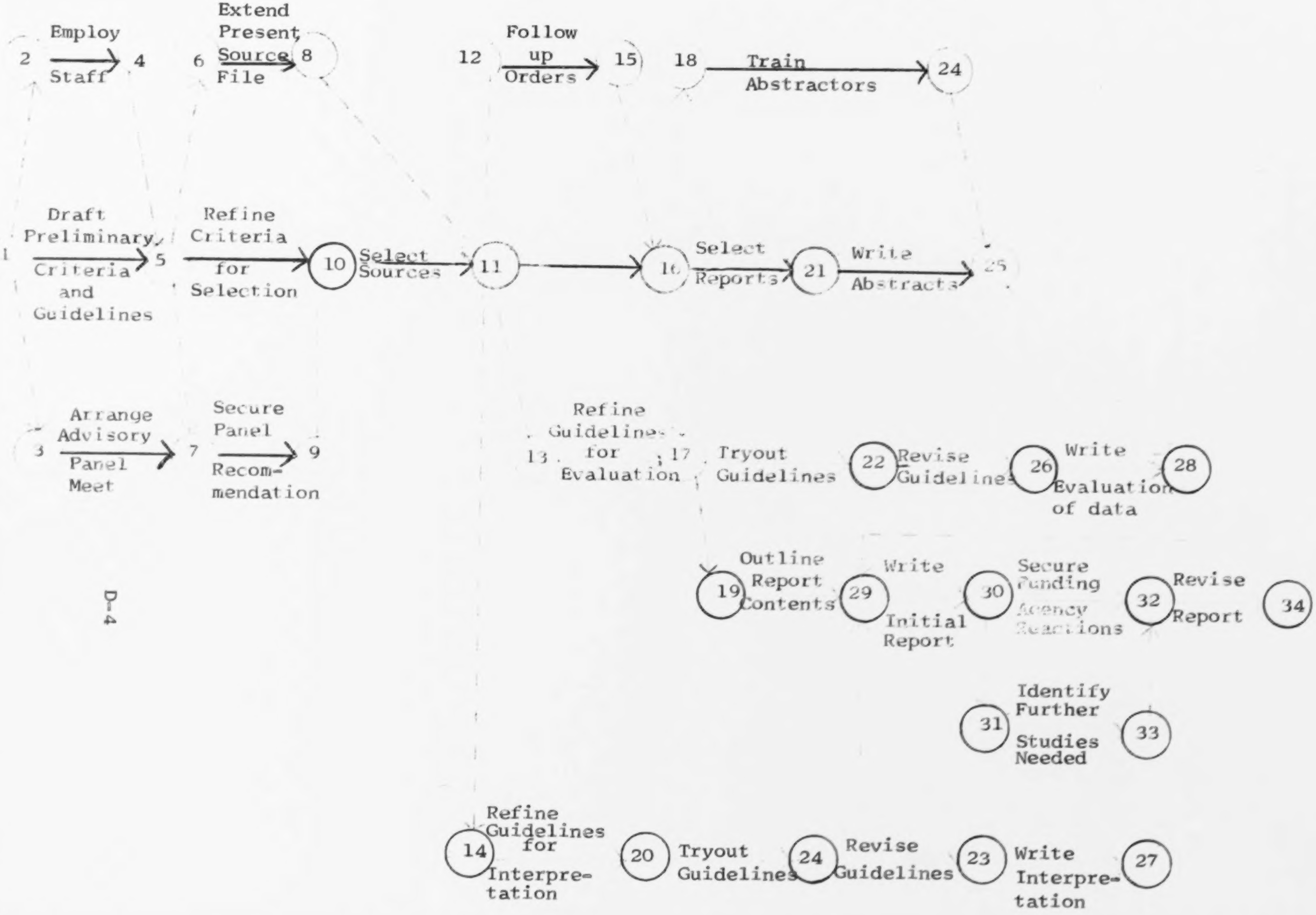
Proposed Beginning and Ending Dates: June 15, 1969--December 14, 1969

Summary

Purposes and general nature. The proposed Study's main aim is to interpret research and development efforts 1960-69 involving social studies and the disadvantaged. Two facets of the Study include social studies for and about the disadvantaged. Objectives include the identification, analysis, and evaluation of pertinent findings from a variety of projects and investigations, plus development of implications of the findings for use in elementary and secondary school programs. Targeted audiences are those most involved in or influential on decision making for social studies in the schools: primarily social studies supervisors, and secondarily such others as administrators, school boards, general supervisors and curriculum coordinators, and curriculum consultants.

Expected contributions to education. Social studies have seriously and regrettably lagged in relation to education of and about the disadvantaged. While rising interest of recent years had advocated "something be done," little has been actually accomplished in most school programs. In various research, experimentation, and curriculum development projects, however, some apparently promising means have been found to improve this aspect of social studies. The Study should increase greatly the chances that most appropriate school personnel will become significantly informed about, and aware of, carefully developed means of improving the contributions of social studies to schooling for and about the disadvantaged.

Procedures. Study procedures involve analysis and interpretation of pertinent data from research and development projects. Analysis includes more complete identification of sources, procurement of reports, and abstracting and evaluating them. Interpretation consists of developing implications of the data analyses for school practices, including recognition of limitations, which will be incorporated into a Study Report. As the Study progresses, further desirable dissemination projects and activities will be identified and described. Throughout, an Advisory Panel of consultants, who are key project personnel and representatives of target audiences, will guide and assist the Study.


2
Employ
Staff
4
6
Extend
Present
Source
File
8
12
Follow
up
Orders
15
18
Train
Abstractors
24
1
Draft
Preliminary
Criteria
and
Guidelines
5
Refine
Criteria
for
Selection
10
Select
Sources
11
16
Select
Reports
21
Write
Abstracts
25
3
Arrange
Advisory
Panel
Meet
7
Secure
Panel
Recom-
mendation
9
13
Refine
Guidelines
for
Evaluation
17
Tryout
Guidelines
22
Revise
Guidelines
26
Write
Evaluation
of data
28
19
Outline
Report
Contents
29
Write
Initial
Report
30
Secure
Funding
Agency
Reactions
32
Revise
Report
34
31
Identify
Further
Studies
Needed
33
14
Refine
Guidelines
for
Interpre-
tation
20
Tryout
Guidelines
24
Revise
Guidelines
23
Write
Interpre-
tation
27

Workbreakdown (PERT) for Proposed Interpretive Study

Level 0	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4	Level 5
Conduct Interpretive Study	Arrangement of involvement of personnel	Employ staff			
		Arrange consultant participation			
	Analysis or pertinent research and development	Collection of data	Identify sources	Make file of possible sources	
				Select pertinent sources	Review funding agency guidelines
					Draft criteria
					Apply criteria
			Procure Reports	Order reports from known sources	
				Follow-up unfilled or incompletely filled orders	Reorder
					Request more information
					Visit source if necessary
			Abstract reports	Review funding agency guidelines	
				Select pertinent reports	
				Write abstracts	Train abstractors
					Supervise abstractors
		Evaluation of data	Develop guidelines for evaluation	Consider, with Advisory Panel, funding agency guidelines	
				Organize guidelines for application	Make initial tryout
					Revise as needed
			Apply guidelines	Secure analysts' agreement on procedures	
				Conduct procedures	
	Interpretation for target audiences	Plan specific contents of report	Review funding agency guidelines		
			Consult Advisory Panel		
			Outline Report contents in detail		
		Produce report	Plan production of draft Report		
			Prepare Report	Write initial draft	
				Secure reactions of funding agency	
				Revise Report as needed	
	Propose further steps for interpretation & dissemination	Review report			
		Draft statement of proposed proj			
		Prepare publication copy for dissemination	Plan publications		
			Begin drafts		

the activities shown are those that were actually undertaken. The notable modifications, as the project proceeded, involved more effort and a longer period of time devoted to identifying sources and reports of data and less devoted to development and refining of guidelines and criteria for selection of sources and reports. As it turned out, the relatively limited number of existing pertinent reports could be satisfactorily screened on the basis of the general criteria set forth in the proposal. Considerable thought and discussion by the project staff focused on development of further criteria and guidelines; but it became increasingly apparent that the original general criteria were largely adequate.

Administrative activities during the initial period were scarcely great but consumed significant time, as is typical of small projects that involve several part-time personnel, as all the professional and semiprofessional staff were. It requires proportionately more time for such a small project to set up its employment, facilities, in-house communication, and budget than for a larger project of the same time or a project with few personnel devoting major or full time to it. Guidance from the College Business Manager and supervision and official bookkeeping by the Office of General Research provided tangible help on budget matters.

One staff change occurred at the beginning of the project when a faculty member indicated he would accept a suddenly offered position at another institution. Fortunately another faculty member, available and interested in the project, agreed to serve as a research associate. Because of the nature of his interest and potential for contribution to the study, this change required rearrangement of the roles of other staff members.

Advisory Panel meeting. As proposed and arranged prior to the study's official beginning, a meeting of the national Advisory Panel took place two weeks after the project's starting date. The Panel consisted of selected individuals who had demonstrated leadership in social studies or education for or about the disadvantaged, and who mostly had notable background in both areas. A list of the Panel members follows.

The Panel met in a two-day work conference conducted at their lodging place near the site of the project. Earlier the Panel members had received copies of the proposal, and a work conference agenda reached them a few days prior to the meeting. The agenda follows. Briefly, the conference consisted of an initial overview of study aims presented by the project staff plus a series of discussion sessions which individual staff chaired in turm. Discussion was open, involving a goodly amount of give and take. Helpful suggestions came from the Panel, most of which the staff were able to utilize in conducting the study. A summary of the Panel's recommendations follows. Playback of tape recordings of the sessions facilitated accurate compilation of these recommendations.

Identifying sources and reports of data. Several sources had been identified and some contacted during proposal preparation and subsequently. But, with the work conference ended, the staff devoted

USOE Interpretive Study
SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE DISADVANTAGED

Baldwin Hall
University of Georgia
Athens, Georgia 30601

ADVISORY PANEL

Anthony, Dr. Sally M., Associate Professor, Department of Education, San Diego State College, San Diego, California 92115, Director, Training Program for Teachers of the Disadvantaged, San Diego, California. Author of articles on teaching of disadvantaged and on social studies.

Bentley, Mrs. Glee, Director, Multicultural Social Education Program, Southwestern Education Development Laboratories, Austin, Texas.

Berlak, Dr. Harold, Co-Director, Metropolitan St. Louis Social Studies Center, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. Co-editor of *Democracy, Pluralism, and the Social Studies*.

Cuban, Mr. Larry, Director, Staff Development, District of Columbia Schools, Washington, D. C. 20012. Former teacher of, and author of instructional materials for and articles about education of, the disadvantaged.

Gibson, Dr. John S., Director, Lincoln Filene Center for Citizenship and Public Affairs, Tufts University, Medford, Massachusetts. Author and editor of project materials for students and for teachers and of *New Frontiers in the Social Studies*, (2 vols.)

Gilliard, Miss June V., Associate Supervisor, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina. Advisory committee member, National Council for the Social Studies.

Hamilton, Mrs. Grace, Executive Director, Atlanta Urban League 1943-61, committee activity since; YWCA National Board, consultant on race relations thru 1963; Representative, 112th House District, Georgia Legislature (now in 4th term); initial, Executive Director, Atlanta Youth Council, 1965.

Harriger, Max F., Branch Chief, Division of Curriculum, Office of Indian Affairs, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20242. Chairman, Project NECESSITIES. Various professional activities in social studies and education of disadvantaged.

Moon, Mrs. Jeannette, Coordinator fo Social Sciences, Atlanta Public Schools, Atlanta, Georgia. Co-Director, Southeastern Regional Lab Project on social science program for junior high school. Co-editor, *Changing Culture* (8th grade social studies books).

Ochoa, Mrs. Anna, Field Director, Tri-U Project in Elementary Social Studies, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington 98105. Experienced elementary and secondary school teacher of social studies.

Patrick, Mr. John J., Research Associate, High School Curriculum Center in Government, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401. Author of Progress of the Afro-American, Political Socialization of American Youth, and articles on social studies.

Rice, Dr. Marion J., Co-Director, Anthropology Project (Elementary), Fain Hall, University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601. Former Deputy Director USOE R&D Center in Educational Stimulation, University of Georgia. Director, (ESEA Title I) Hancock County, Georgia, School Improvement Project. Author of Curriculum materials for teachers and students.

Wright, Dr. J. Zeb, Program Specialist, Social Studies, State Department of Education, State Capitol Building, Charleston, West Virginia 25205. Acting Director, West Virginia Triple-T Project. President, Council of State Social Studies Specialists (National Council for the Social Studies).

Suggested Agenda for

ADVISORY PANEL WORK CONFERENCE

June 29 - July 1 Key to America Motel

Sunday 2:15 p.m. - Introductions; Welcome; Orientation.

2:45 p.m. - Overview: Crucial Elements of Interpretive Study as seen by Study Staff.

3:00 p.m. - Break

3:45 p.m. - What do you mean? -- Panel queries re (1) Identification of major activities, and (2) Sequence of steps outlined in proposal.

5:15 p.m. - Discontinue Panel sessions for day.

6:00 p.m. - Panel and Staff are invited to a social get-together at residence of Study Director.

Monday 8:45 a.m. - Where are the data? -- Identification of probable or possible sources.

10:00 a.m. - Break

10:20 a.m. - What's worth analyzing? -- Reactions and suggestions re selecting sources and reports of data.

11:50 a.m. - Break

12:15 p.m. - Served luncheon in motel meeting room.

1:30 p.m. - What's worth reporting? -- Reactions and suggestions re evaluating projects and reports of data.

3:00 p.m. - Break

3:15 p.m. - How should they be interpreted? -- Translating reports of data into forms most usable by target audience(s).

5:00 p.m. - Discontinue Panel sessions for day.

Tuesday 8:45 a.m. - How well was it done? -- Plans for three-way evaluation of the study.

10:15 a.m. - Break

10:30 a.m. - How can it best be made known? -- Ways of disseminating results of Study.

12:00 noon - Break

12:20 p.m. - Served luncheon in motel meeting room.

1:30 p.m. - Conference adjourns.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE DISADVANTAGED
Interpretive Study—USOE supported
Jonathon C. McLendon
Donald O. Schneider
Marion J. Rice
Michael L. Hawkins

105 Baldwin Hall
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
Athens, Georgia 30601
[illegible]

RECOMMENDATIONS MADE BY ADVISORY PANEL

A. On selecting, analyzing, and interpreting projects for the disadvantaged:

1. Explicit objectives of the projects should be examined to determine whether or not they present suburban students with the concept that there are cultures with equal validity and viability.
2. Analysis of instructional projects for the disadvantaged must also include teaching strategies and methodology.
3. The study should not attempt to evaluate materials. The study should concern itself with the research reporting about materials. What should be evaluated is the quality of the research design, then on that basis accept or reject its findings and report if it works with disadvantaged.
4. The study should address itself to the claims of publishers of materials for the disadvantaged and report on the supporting research data.
5. If time is available to evaluate instructional or curriculum materials, objective criteria must be developed and operational definitions formalized.
6. Do not restrict the responses of project directors to hard data. Let their responses to questions be open-ended.

B. On evaluating projects and reports:

1. Criteria developed for the evaluation process should be objective.
2. Impressionistic reports used in the Study should be evaluated in terms of such criteria as: their objectives (both content and process types), subjects' reactions, optional activities for subjects, and impact on teacher behavior.
3. The body of impressionistic literature should be evaluated in terms of the objectives they set forth.
4. Impressionistic literature should be examined for indications of trends and future research topics.
5. "Hard data" research reports should be analyzed in terms of such criteria as: experimental design including control groups; adequate delineation of objectives, treatment, sampling techniques, description of subjects, validity of instruments' content and language, investigator bias, and over generalization.
6. The study should not attempt to make value judgements about the projects but should confine its efforts to critical analysis of the research substantiating the claims of the projects.
7. In conducting site visits the staff should solicit feedback from the students or obtain such data from the project records.
8. Preliminary syntheses should be critically reviewed by various members of the advisory panel who are involved in such projects.

C. On structuring of the report:

1. In regard to the use of the term "culturally disadvantaged" in the cover letter requesting information, the term "culturally" should be eliminated or be replaced by the work "economically."
2. The study should attempt to "bridge the gap" between the child's world and social studies activities.
3. The staff should develop some sort of conceptualized, schematic way of reviewing pertinent reports of research and development. Then use a creative interpretive design to draw implications for the future.
4. In evaluating materials, reports, etc., inclusion of the categories of attitudinal change would be highly desirable.
5. Abstracts should be indexed in a utilitarian manner *vis-a-vis* the needs of the target audience.
6. The staff should feel free to make any judgments they feel are warranted.

D. On addressing the report to the target audiences:

1. The target audience needs the study to interpret social studies materials for the disadvantaged in terms of what is actually being done across the nation.
2. The report should be made available to various agencies who in turn could make it available to their memberships.
3. The nature and needs of the target audience should be kept in mind as the abstracts are being written.
4. The study should expand the range of the target audience and disseminate the report to out-of-school agencies enlisted in education, e.g., The Urban League, Model Cities Program, etc.
5. Articles about the study written for dissemination should be tailored to audiences of the various professional journals and popular periodicals.

E. On related areas:
1. The study should evaluate research done in areas such as political socialization. While not social studies *per se*, such research contains important implications for social studies curriculum development.
2. Tangential areas--those things not specifically labeled social studies will have to be examined.
3. Summary of areas suggested as tangential yet important:
    (a) Psychology of learning
    (b) Sociology of education
    (c) Language development
    (d) Auditory discrimination
    (e) Theories of learning
    (f) In-service training--implications for
    (g) Political socialization
    (h) Values and attitudes

F. On evaluating the Interpretive Study

1. Outside evaluators should be given the minutes of the Advisory Panel meeting.
2. The outside evaluators should be brought together for a day or so. This would provide them with an opportunity to synthesize their findings.
3. Members of the study staff should be present at the time of the outside evaluation.
4. Outside evaluation should be conducted only by the people who have the necessary expertise and can be constructively critical.
5. In-house evaluation should be a continuing process; a log of staff experiences would aid in this.
6. Any evaluation should be made in light of the study's objectives. The evaluative criteria should be sharply defined.

major effort to source identification and contact. This activity continued throughout the summer and well into the fall. Major means included examination of seemingly pertinent professional literature, follow-up of Advisory Panel suggestions, letters of request to those seemingly likely to identify sources, and use of such other recommendations as the staff could secure. A copy of the standard letter of request follows. It went to more than 600 individuals and agencies. Beyond preliminary staff identification, suggestions from Advisory Panel members, and replies to inquiries, library resources also furnished data reports, report citations, or identification of seemingly likely sources. Guides, indexes, bibliographies, and other references were surveyed. Social Education's annual summary of research in social studies, published beginning in 1965, was helpful. Journals in Education aided identification of quite recent periodical publications. Education Index provided reference to fewer periodicals during all of the 1960's. Comparison of two years in Reader's Guide and Education Index indicated that the former would not likely cite anything pertinent that was not revealed by the latter. Cumulative Book Index proved of little propriety in this survey. Dissertation Abstracts, consulted on several studies cited elsewhere, were surveyed for the past decade. Research Studies in Education were also searched for the 1960's. Pacesetters in Education and the Catalog of Selected Documents on the Disadvantaged cited several pertinent sources or reports.

Research in Education, listing ERIC citations of a broad range of materials, proved time-consuming but the most valuable single index used. The ERIC descriptor vocabulary was studied and a checklist of possibly appropriate descriptor terms was prepared and used as a checklist. A copy of this list follows. Checking the diverse terms shown was both necessitated and complicated by unpredictable variations in listings presented through even the standardized vocabulary of RIE. Occasionally a known or suspected pertinent document turned out to be listed under such a head as "project evaluation" rather than in a category more specifically identifiable with the study.

Each potential source of data reports was recorded in a card file of sources. Within a short time it became desirable to cross-reference entries by project and individual. This avoided unnecessary duplication of full entries and facilitated rapid identification of whether a possible new entry had already been made. The file card form follows, including explanatory notes about the nature of entries made on the cards.

Actually the "source" card was used initially to record reports as well as sources of data. This dual use made for efficiency through saving the effort of separate recording of sources or reports that were merely possibly pertinent. As soon as a report was identifiable as likely pertinent, a separate and more detailed record card (shown later) was made for it.

Securing data reports. In many cases the identification of a potential source did not specify whether it was the producer of a data report or a resource to identify data reports compiled by others. Economy of time, effort, and money came from combining the initial letter request

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We are engaged in a short term study to review the results of recent research and development on social studies and the disadvantaged. Our areas of concern include both (1) elementary and secondary social studies for culturally disadvantaged or economically deprived students, and (2) elementary and secondary social studies curriculum or instruction about culturally disadvantaged or economically deprived peoples. In brief, we seek to identify reported or reportable evidence on social studies for and about the disadvantaged. It is your apparently related interest and/or work that leads us to contact you.

Will you help us identify appropriate reports or sources of reports? Our preliminary survey of seemingly pertinent sources indicated that relevant data exist in a variety of places: experimental programs, curriculum development projects, individual and group research studies, state school systems, individual schools, regional centers, tryouts or field testing of published or experimental materials, and other activities. Many of them have yielded pertinent information though not all have reported it in readily available publications. We are interested in projects or reports of the past ten years. We desire particularly those reports that include more tangible data than impressions, opinions, or speculations only.

Will you send us, identify to us, or refer us to sources of pertinent data? We will be glad to send back after examination any material you would like returned. And, we'll pay postage both directions. If there is a sales charge, please advise now so that we may order immediately.

We appreciate that you may have received previously our inquiry addressed to the state director of programs for disadvantaged. But we direct this to you because we have heard so little in reply to that request. Thank you very much for your help. An early reply would be specially appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

ERIC Descriptors

American History
Anthropology
Current Events
Economics
Ethnology
Geography
History
Political Science
Psychology
Social Sciences
Social Studies
Social Studies Unit
Sociology
World Affairs

American Indians
Compensatory Education
Compensatory Education Programs
Cultural Disadvantagement
Culturally Disadvantaged
Disadvantaged Environment
Disadvantaged Groups
Disadvantaged Schools
Disadvantaged Youth
Economic Disadvantagement
Economically Disadvantaged
Educational Disadvantagement
Educationally Disadvantaged
Eskimos
Ethnic Groups
Ethnic Relations
Ethnic Status
Ethnic Stereotypes
Mexican American History
Mexican Americans
Migrant Child Education
Migrant Children
Migrant Education
Migrant Problems
Migrant Schools
Migrant Youth
Migrants
Minority Group Children
Minority Groups
Minority Group Teachers
Minority Role

Negro Achievement
Negro Attitudes
Negro Culture
Negro Education
Negro History
Negro Role
Negro Stereotypes
Negro Students
Negro Teachers
Negro Youth
Negroes
Puerto Rican Culture
Puerto Ricans
Racial Attitudes
Racial Differences
Racial Factors
Racial Recognition
Rural Dropouts
Rural Education
Rural Schools
Rural School Systems
Rural Urban Differences
Rural Youth
Social Disadvantagement
Socially Disadvantaged
Spanish Americans
Urban Dropouts
Urban Education
Urban Schools
Urban Teaching
Urban Youth

Identifier's (recommender's)initials ___

SOCIAL STUDIES AND DISADVANTAGED PROJECTS Source___Report___

Project: (Name of organization, agency, institution, school system, producer, publisher)

Individual: (Name of director, experimenter, researcher, or reporter or potential contact person)

Title: (Of publication, report, or other document; if letter only, so state with date)

Address: (Location, including mailing address, if available)

Summary: (Brief identification of main elements reflecting especially relationships to social studies for and about disadvantaged)--(staff member's initials)

Rating: (Brief evaluation of quality including estimate of extent or degree to which hard data are available, reported, and/or analyzed)--(staff member's initials)

Research studies
Experimental programs
Curriculum projects
Developmental activities
Innovative programs
Materials production efforts

I-(date inquiry sent; initials) M(date material ordered; initials)
IR-(date reply received; initials)MR-(date material received; initials)

for recommendation of sources with a request for reports of data. Nevertheless, replies to requesting letters came slowly. More than half the replies indicated no report available and no report or source to recommend. About a third of the sources contacted did not reply, implying that they had nothing to report. In some cases non-reply resulted in a second or even third request, where the staff had reason to believe that a report or source recommendation was known to the addressee.

More than half of the data reports examined were obtained at no charge. In other cases they were purchased. In several instances data reports were identified as in process of preparation. All of those instances were followed up with requests or purchase orders to furnish when available. Generally addressess were cooperative; many went to significant trouble or expense to furnish reports or recommendation of sources.

Reviewing R&D Reports

More than 400 citations of reports were followed up by the project staff. Local availability of all ERIC documents in microfiche form and of periodicals cited in the indexes facilitated early examination of those reports. Documents received by request by order ran the total of documents examined to over 300; most others were doctoral candidate studies examined initially by consulting *Dissertation Abstracts*. Approximately 120 of these reports were selected for abstracting.

Selecting reports. Initial selection occurred through the extensive rejection of documents other than those identified as appropriate by classification or through response to inquiry, request, or order. Further rejection occurred through prima facie examination of documents that initial inspection showed not pertinent or not data reporting reduced the number of some 400 documents examined to about 120 abstracted. General criteria alone were sufficient to make this selection.

The general criteria used were those contained in the original proposal. They included:

(1) Inclusive of, or based on, data beyond impressions of participants or reporters. This is, some "hard data" must be available in a project, report, or data source.

(2) Directly related in substance to social studies curriculum or instruction concerning the disadvantaged or learning of social studies by the disadvantaged.

(3) Inclusive of, or based on, conditions or situations or factors during the past ten years. Such data and reports are assumed to have greater relevance to the foreseeable future.

(4) At least apparent pertinence to the nature and functions of the primary target audience or to more than one of the secondary target audiences.

(5) Inclusive of data evidencing limitations of project approaches, curriculums, or instructional materials or techniques.

(6) Translatable into operational settings including constraints characterizing change in schools' instructional programs.

The last two listed among these criteria turned out to be applicable only to a limited extent. Few of the data reports included full recognition of limitations and constraints on the projects reported, and a good many studies gave no appreciable attention to these factors. Pertinence to the targeted audiences was interpreted, particularly in view of their widely ranging diversity, to mean relatability to elementary or secondary school curriculum or instruction. The social studies were considered to include instructional components identified in the reports by that term or by any of the subjects or major topics commonly taught in school programs in that field. Reports of data on social studies for disadvantaged students and on social studies content (for any elementary or secondary school students) about the disadvantaged were included. It was the first of the foregoing listed criteria that serve most fully as a selector. More reports without that with data were examined, and the former were set aside as not acceptable for this study's analysis of R&D. Also any serious attempt at evaluation of students' learning, teachers' behavior, instructional materials, or of other data derived in a project were accepted. Frequently, however, project reports either attempted no report of evaluation or other data or they merely cited unsupported and unanalyzed impressionistic views. The latter usually came from participants (teachers, students, researchers, or others) and were frequently of the testimonial type. Rejection of reports including only this type of feedback does not reflect negatively on their quality or value. This study's staff regards such project reports as insufficient in data and therefore lacking in empirical evidence, regardless of their seeming or potential values.

Abstracting reports. The previously mentioned abstract card form was used to record reports that passed initial screening. Relatively short reports were analyzed and the abstract for each was recorded on the back side of this form card. A copy of the form card follows. Long reports (large monograph or book size) were cited on the front of a card and the abstract, typed on separate pages, was attached to the back of the card. Use of the cards facilitated rapid checking of abstracted documents.

To aid later comparison of the abstracted reports, as comparable as possible information was recorded about each report. Besides bibliographic information, a group of "ratings" was also recorded on the front of each card. Actually these were classifications of the nature and purposes of the selected project reports rather than evaluations of their general or specific qualities. Abstract guides encouraged the staff's research analysts to record whatever the selected reports included of comparable basic elements about the reported projects. Identification of these elements was helpful but also limited in applicability to the diverse nature of both selected projects and reports of them.

ABSTRACT OF
RESEARCH REPORT

___________________ (class)

__________ ____________ (other retrieval terms)

author:

abstractor:

short
title:

full
title:

ed:

place:

publisher or
organization:

date (in parens if est.):

vol. no.:

no. of pages:

format: book___article___mimeo doc.___printed doc.___other__________

further identification:

RATING

DESIGN: structure expl'd___implied___rationale expl'd___implied___none___
TECHNIQUE: theory___survey___experiment___testing___description___
DATA: hard___tangible but not adequate___impressionistic___omitted___
ANALYSIS: refined___incisive but subjective___vague___omitted___
UTILITY: background___implications___applications___

author__________________________ short title__________________________

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY

Main findings. Purpose(s). Hypothesis testing. Nature of design. Population. Treatment. Data collection. Analysis. Limitations.

Like source and report identification, abstracting continued for most of the project period, though most of it had been completed at the three-quarter point. Desire to develop as complete as possible a collection of pertinent abstracts led unavoidably to delay in securing and analyzing some. The following checklist aided in the process.

ELEMENTS TO BE INCLUDED IN ABSTRACTS

1. Type of research and development.
2. What students or student groups are target.
3. Grade levels or school situations
4. Social science or other content areas.
5. What type of disadvantage or what type cultural factors are the focus.
6. Nature and kinds of material or media.
7. Teaching strategies or teaching procedure.
8. Relationship to other curriculum areas.
9. Relationship to school factors such as classroom organization.
10. Relationship to nonschool variables, e.g. home environment, peer groups, etc.
11. What relationship to teacher training or public acceptance.
12. Objectives and rationale.

Surveying related research. While most of the research team concentrated on R&D reports, one staff member devoted major effort to surveying research in psychology and sociology relatable to social studies and the disadvantaged. Given the hundreds of pertinent studies in each of these disciplines, it was not practicable to analyze each of them separately. Therefore the survey depended considerably on syntheses already prepared by sociologists and psychologists who had given special attention to characteristics of the disadvantaged and to aspects of learning germane to disadvantaged subcultures as subject matter for study. Numerous individual research studies were, however, examined and cited in that portion of the report.

The survey of related literature in sociology and psychology proceeded concurrently with the analysis of data reports dealing directly with social studies for or about the disadvantaged. Other staff members recommended to the one making that survey materials and citations of reports or syntheses of research that related to although they did not present data directly on social studies and the disadvantaged. The survey of related background in sociological and psychological research was developed as a distinctive chapter for the interpretive study report.

Preparing the Targeted Communication Report

Both research assistants and associates participated with the director of the study as policy makers for, as well as performers of, procedures for gathering, analyzing, and developing syntheses and interpretations of pertinent R&D reports. Like other team efforts involving group decision making, this study required some accommodation of varying viewpoints. As perceived by the director, differences in views consisted largely of simply diverse preferences among alternative approaches or emphases rather than basic and contradicting or mutually exclusive differences over aims. In periodic staff meetings the staff considered and reconsidered alternatives. Proposals for particular choices were often drafted and several times distributed in advance of meetings. When differences persisted, the project director selected from among the alternatives, and the staff cooperatively proceeded with work on this basis.

Organizing the report. Before much effort could efficiently be devoted to synthesizing the abstracts, it was important to decide how the report consisting of synthesis and interpretations would be organized. Early consideration was given to the possibility of employing the same organization of effort that was utilized in identifying sources and data reports and preparing the abstracts. For those activities the work was allocated largely according to types of sources searched and reviewed. Thus the following categories of sources provided a basis for division of labor in contacting sources and in reviewing materials identified by or received by them:

1. ESEA Projects; R&D Centers; Regional Laboratories; State Departments of Education; ERIC Clearinghouses.
2. Producers of instructional material with recorded tryout or field testing.
3. Dissertations; professional periodical literature.
4. Professional books; curriculum projects.

The two research assistants worked as assigned to individual staff members, one of them primarily involved in reviewing Education Index and the other fully devoted to surveying Research in Education. Research associates and assistants shifted among themselves materials received for review, and, as appropriate, selected for abstracting. While such exchange varied from the foregoing categories, it aided efficiency in getting the work done as incoming materials from each type of source differed considerably in length, complexity, and frequency of receipt. Thus, at different times, most of the staff was reviewing dissertations, or project reports, or periodical articles.

Before the midpoint of the project period the staff had begun to give specific and inclusive attention to organization of the abstracts for purposes of synthesis and interpretation. Three alternative and varying proposals were developed by staff members. One of them was an inclusive and detailed categorization of more than eighty characteristics or elements of the disadvantaged, teaching/learning, and social studies. Another proposal focused on characteristics or elements of classroom instruction plus lesser attention to the research characteristics of the reporting projects and studies. Still another proposal suggested organizing the abstracted findings by the elements of curriculum, instruction, teacher improvement, and students.

Targeted audience representatives committee meeting. Preliminary circulation of these proposals among members of an Advisory Panel small committee of primary targeted audience representatives brought limited response. (It was late summer.) Some preference was indicated for the third alternative which, meanwhile, the project staff had inclined increasingly toward. The first proposal (mentioned above) appeared more suited to the interests of researchers. (It was used with modification for the Report chapter on research from sociology and psychology.) The second alternative seemed more focused on the concerns of elementary and secondary teachers. At an early fall meeting, with the project staff, the targeted audience representatives committee favorably reacted to sample abstracts and interpretive manuscript (sent them several days before the meeting) following the third proposal as most directly related to concerns of the targeted audiences (curriculum decision makers). Thereafter preparation of the Report proceeded by that approved organization.

Various additional aspects of the study were considered at the committee meeting. The agenda for that meeting follows. By fortunate coincidence of timing appropriate for a site visit by the project's OE monitor, that representative was also able to attend the committee meeting, adding another basis for and dimension to the range of project characteristics discussed.

Synthesizing the abstracts. By early fall the staff was busy both continuing to prepare abstracts of occasional newly received materials while synthesizing the findings recorded in some fifty abstracted reports. Actually only forty-three of these report abstracts were ultimately included while additional abstracts ran the final total up to seventy. Research assistants, now well practiced, did most of the later abstracts. Decided upon a basic organization for the synthesis, research associates divided the labor by each concentrating on one of the major components of the selected organization: curriculum, instruction, and teacher improvement. A fourth category of students was omitted as a separate one in favor of treating it in relation to the first two and especially as it gained full attention in the sociological and psychological background prepared by the fourth research associate.

Each of most of the data reports and abstracts thereon related to at least two of the three main components of the emerging section of the Report interpreting data reports. Each staff member, with suggestions from others, selected those abstracts pertaining to his section of the Report. Duplicate or triplicate copies of abstracts were made according to needs of the staff, now a writing team with individually allocated major responsibilities. Frequent informal consultation among the staff clarified the propriety of treating various report abstracts, or elements of them, in particular sections of the project's report. Staff members freely, though not exhaustively, exchanged queries and recommendations.

Interpreting the abstracts. Much communication continued among staff as they progressed in drafting the Report beyond merely synthesizing abstracted data reports and into developing interpretations and implications for the targeted audience(s). Limited attention in staff meetings and more extensive informal discussion included frequent reminders of characteristics of the targeted audience(s). Even the primary targeted audience (state and local social studies supervisors and curriculum directors), however, comprise a group of much diversity. More commonality is found in the scope and basic nature of their job responsibilities.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE DISADVANTAGED
Interpretive Study--USOE supported
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PRELIMINARY EVALUATION MEETING--TARGETED AUDIENCE REPRESENTATIVE COMMITTEE

QUESTIONS FOR COMMITTEE REACTION

What major needs and uses do targeted audience(s) have for a report on research and development on social studies and the disadvantaged?

1. Primary audience: state and local social studies supervisors, coordinators, curriculum directors, specialists.
2. Secondary audience: school administrators, board members, general supervisors and curriculum directors, and curriculum consultants.

How can Study Report best serve targeted audiences?

1. In types of content and emphases?

   Abstracts (summaries)
   Syntheses
   Implications (suggested uses)
   Limitations (suggested dangers)

   Curriculum
   Instruction
   Professional Development
   Socio-psychological background

2. In Report's format?

   Bibliography (abstracts, citations, listing, indexing)
   Style (organization, readability, sequence)
   Illustrations (charts, diagrams, outlines, other)

How can Study Report best be disseminated and otherwise followed up?

1. with primary audience?
2. with each or several secondary audiences?
3. with elementary and secondary teachers?
4. with trainers of teachers, researchers, and others?

The extensive contacts that the project staff had had with various primary targeted audience members in different parts of the country served helpfully in shaping the Report toward that diverse group. One of the project staff had several years of recent experience as a social studies supervisor.

Abstract interpretations involved some at least minor problems. The seventy data reports could scarcely be considered comparable. Indeed, there were hardly more than two or three directly comparable studies reported. Further, attempts to interrelate the studies required a moderate amount of going back to the data reports themselves. While the abstracts seemed to stand well individually as general summaries of findings from individual projects, the act of relating several of them often called for getting additional information from one or more reports, or checking to verify that reports did not include such information.

Coordinating and editing. The ready communication among project staff (officed in the same suite) facilitated coordination. Expectably varying individual viewpoints emerged, though only rarely did they involve contradictions. Normally brief discussion sufficed to reconcile, usually with only minor if any modification, seemingly diverse outlooks. Often as not the apparent problems were "semantic."

The project director assumed major responsibility for editing. Each staff member, however, did much editing of his own manuscript. And informal requests for reactions to short sections occurred moderately. Delays of mostly normal types precluded the possibility of much editing of manuscript in preparation of the Preliminary Report that was submitted during the latter part of the fall to the sponsoring agency.

After a few intervening days, during which several site visits were made, the staff reexamined the drafted report. Consensus favored fuller development of interpretations and particularly of recommendations to the targeted audience(s). Meanwhile the latest half-dozen abstracts were completed, and the manuscript needed insertions pertaining to them. These tasks were accomplished in about one month.

Developing Site Recommendations

As planned in the proposal, the project aimed to identify and recommend sites particularly suitable to the targeted audience(s) as continuing sources of information and, as appropriate, projects to visit for purposes of consultation and/or demonstration. An approved extension of project time permitted the staff to delay remaining site visits while completing revisions of the Preliminary Report. Then, during the winter, those site visits were completed and reports incorporated into the Final Report.

Selecting sites to visit. The project staff had expected that sites to recommend would be selected ones of those that data reports had come from or concerned. This hope was only partly met. For many of the data-reporting projects no longer continued operation. This applied especially to individual projects or studies but also to larger ones whose funding had discontinued. Other projects were obviously not of a profitably visitable or information furnishing type.

Meanwhile, however, the staff had identified several other projects, including some that had not yet reported data regarding their programs, that could properly be added to the list of potentially recommendable sites. Altogether thirty-eight sites were identified and contacted regarding possible visits from study staff members. Criteria for selection appear in the outline of "Considerations..." that follows.

Initial inquiries regarding visits went to them during the fall. Several replied by mail, but many awaited indicated follow-up contact. Follow-up was typically by telephone, some revealing factors that eliminated those sites from further consideration. The number to visit dwindled to twenty-six that were visited, with twenty of those proving to be recommendable to the targeted audience(s).

Conducting site visits. Most of the potential, including the actually visited, sites had been contacted during the fall. Arrangements for visits were completed by correspondence and telephone. Except in three cases the persons contacted, or others they recommended, were quite cooperative and helpful in furnishing information and in facilitating visits. But for two sites the staff visits were cordially facilitated by personnel at the sites.

By careful arrangement and advance communication the typical site visit required only half a day there. The study staff member usually conferred at length with the project director, or someone in his stead, and other appropriate persons there. Site personnel were quite helpful in furnishing information and materials. Securing the desired information about sites was facilitated by use of a prepared checklist that was sent in advance to sites visited along with the explanatory "Considerations..." indicating the purposes of the visit. A copy of the checklist follows.

Preparing site reports. The extensive range of elements pertaining to a variety of sites rarely pertained fully to one of them. The checklist form, then, served usefully in gathering information about the sites. But it was regarded as not suitable for presenting to targeted audiences the concentrated information most useful to them. Thus site reports were written after the staff returned from site visits. When appropriate, missing information was secured and supplied or questionable items were checked.

Planning Dissemination

Prior plans. Meetings and other professional activities of educators are often planned and arranged several months--up to a year or more--in advance. This fact of professional life necessitated the arrangement, sometimes tentative and sometimes obligatory, for a number of project follow-up activities well prior to the completion of the analysis and interpretation phase of the study. Indeed, preliminary plans were arranged for at least two dissemination activities even before the proposal was submitted. Another was arranged after submission but before approval of the project. All of those involved presentations

CONSIDERATIONS RE SITES FOR POTENTIAL VISITS AND RECOMMENDATION BY I.S. STAFF

BACKGROUND OF INTERPRETIVE STUDY:

Short-term synthesis of research and development with implications for elementary and secondary schools re social studies for disadvantaged students, or social studies curriculum and instruction about disadvantaged groups.

Targeted audience(s) for our Study include state and local social studies curriculum directors/coordinators/supervisors and other school personnel whose decision making directly affects social studies programs.

PURPOSE OF POSSIBLE I.S. STAFF VISITS

To ascertain whether and, if so, how a project or center could be recommended as a desirable site for visits by targeted audience(s). A recommended center may be of either two types:

(1) A development/dissemination project, as one for research curriculum development, or instructional materials development.
(2) An implementation/demonstration center, as an innovative or experimental program in a school or school system.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF I.S. STAFF VISITS:

To be recommended, a project or center or program should meet most of all the following criteria (in addition to those implied above regarding pertinence to social studies and disadvantaged):

(1) On-going Operation. A project should have the prospect of continuing operation through at least the year 1970.
(2) Data Basis, or Involvement, or Production. A Project should be based on, involved in, or committed to produce some pertinent empirical evaluation of program, materials or learning.
(3) Accessibility to Visitors. A project should be readily accessible by normal transportation, to visitors from various parts of the country.
(4) Practicability to Schools. A project should involve elements that are directly applicable to or utilizable in school programs.
(5) Availability of Staff to Visitors. A project should have available one or more staff to host, confer with, or demonstrate to visitors representing school systems.
(6) Appropriateness to Targeted Audience(s). A project should have estimable propriety for a specified one or more of the targeted audiences.

Interpretive Study SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE DISADVANTAGED

CHECKLIST OF CHARACTERISTICS FOR RECOMMENDED SITE
(Check appropriate blanks. Fill in information after colon.)

IDENTIFICATION

person in charge--name: title:

project/program name:

agency name:

street address:

city: state: zip:

type of project: developmental/dissemination ____
implementation/application ____

DATA BASE OR OUTPUT (Attach any available report not previously received.)

report title:

publisher/date/pages: unpublished? ____

variable(s) measured: affective:

cognitive:

unreported data: analyzed? ____
nature or type:

concerning (subjects):

plan to publish?____when, where?

CHECKLIST OF CHARACTERISTICS FOR RECOMMENDED SITE Continued

PRODUCTS DISTRIBUTED (Attach list if available, noting additional items below.)

#1		#2	
for teachers____students____others:		for teachers____students____others:	
for____about____disadvantaged		for____about____disadvantaged	
title(s):		title(s):	
grade(s):	subject(s):	grade(s):	subject(s):
____mimeo	____filmstrip	____mimeo	____filmstrip
____offset	____film	____offset	____film
____printed	____audio tape	____printed	____audio tape
____hardbound	____incls. illus.	____hardbound	____incls. illus.
length:	price:	length:	price:

SERVICES AVAILABLE AT SITE

tour____info handouts____queries discussed____demonstration:film____tape____ live____on or ____off site:

elements demonstrated/explained/discussed: ____instruction--grades:
____subjects, topics:

____curriculum development/materials
____instructional materials/development
____teacher training____type(s):

days/hours regularly open:

recommended local transportation:

advance arrangement necessary for visit?: contact whom:

at meetings of ongoing professional organizations. They were facilitated by well-established contacts that project personnel had developed with an affiliated organization of the National Council for the Social Studies and with the Georgia and other nearby state social studies councils.

Plans evolved during the project period. Additional ideas for dissemination developed while the project was underway, particularly during its latter half. These ideas were broached in informal discussions, at staff meetings, or during contacts with groups to which dissemination could properly be directed or through which it might be channeled. Mostly these were national groups, chosen out of desire to secure a maximum audience in dissemination. Additional, special attention was given the South, in development of plans for dissemination, because of its continuing concentration of a larger-than-average share of economically deprived and educationally disadvantaged proportion of the nation's population.

The continuation proposal. By the time the Preliminary Report was submitted, a decision had been made to submit to the grant agency a proposal to support a series of dissemination activities. Consultation with the OE monitor provided needed information on procedure and timing. As the Preliminary Report went to OE the project director began to develop with two other staff members the draft of a proposal. Its preparation involved contact with the educational organizations and school systems that the proposal identified as dissemination channels. The proposal was submitted during the winter as the initial-phase Final Report was being duplicated except for recommendations based on site visits that were then still in process. A proposal abstract follows.

Managing the Project

As seems to typify such projects, the initial period of the study was marked by suggested as well as unintentional divergence beyond the limits of the proposed activity. Such suggestions were apparent in early staff meetings and in the Advisory Panel conference. Project management was inevitably concerned, then, with getting the job done by keeping the project on its intended and proposal-specified track.

Personnel and facilities. An additional major concern in project management was with providing the needed facilities to enable the staff to carry out their functions. One office with especially adequate shelving was allocated to the research assistants. Project files were kept here. Basic secretarial equipment was loaned the project by the department to which the professional staff was basically assigned. A supplementary office in the departmental suite was provided the only research associate ordinarily officed in another building. Scheduling of staff time for the project involved agreement on a minimum of two half-days per week in which all staff were to be in project offices. The common time allotments aided communication among staff members and work progress throughout most of the study period.

A rearrangement of some of the staff responsibilities was necessitated as the project was getting started. One of the staff members resigned his faculty appointment to take a position at another institution. It was judged better to replace him at the outset rather

ABSTRACT

Title of Project: Targeted Communication Study of Research and Development in Social Studies and the Disadvantaged--Phase Two: Dissemination and Implementation

Principal Investigators: Jonathon C. McLendon, Professor and Head
Donald O. Schneider, Associate Professor
Social Science Education, College of Education

Contracting Agency: University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia 30601

Amount of Federal Funds Requested: $40,837

Proposed Beginning and Ending Dates: March 15, 1970--October 14, 1970

Summary

Purposes and General Nature. Overall purpose is to disseminate soon and widely to targeted audiences Phase One analysis and implications. Contributory objectives include: development of dissemination materials; focusing of interest among, and making known findings to, key curriculum decision makers in state and local school systems; working with targeted audiences on plans for implementation in their varying locales and career roles; complementing non-funded dissemination with other activities; and providing bases for ongoing dissemination, without grant agency support, and for further needed research and development. Funded activities involve mainly conferences with targeted audience representatives, organized in the South and as state social studies specialists, and in the nation's key urban areas.

Expected Contributions to Education. Social studies have critically lagged in amount and quality of attention to disadvantaged. The proposal would provide: early, widespread awareness of results, including limitations, of pertinent research and development, especially in areas of pressing need; involvement and commitment of key leaders to seek improvement in school systems' programs; and a large variety of activities forming a broad frontal attack on urgent needs of social studies re the disadvantaged.

Procedures. Chief funded activities proposed are: development of a Dissemination Materials Package with interpretive selections for various targeted audiences, bibliographies, and sound slidefilms; a week-long conference with state level personnel from the South; a two-day program at the annual national meeting of state social studies specialists; and twenty-four one-day conferences with various targeted audience representatives from several school districts in each major population center of the U.S. Various complementary, non-funded activities will be pursued, but the aforementioned activities are considered most critical.

than two months after the project began when he had scheduled departure from this locale. The reallocation of responsibilities involved an enlargement of the scope of the project's input and output to include sociological and psychological background, to be developed primarily by the newly added staff member. This had the advantage of increasing the dimensions of the study and the disadvantage of placing more responsibility than originally allocated to the other three staff members.

Deadlines met and unmet. It seems to be "par for the course" for educational projects and a variety of other team activities to tend toward running behind schedule. This applied particularly to the early part of this study. Delays were due especially to difficulties in securing replies during the summer months and at the beginning of the school year from many of the sources contacted. It would be easy to overstress the weaknesses of this timing, however. There is clearly no ideal time to get responses from such a variety of the several hundred agencies, institutions, projects, and other sources contacted.

By early fall it was apparent that the Report would not be complete with site recommendations by the end of the calendar year as originally projected. The OE coordinator provided helpful guidance, identifying the possibility of and suggested procedures in applying for an extension of time. While this provided no additional funds and project work during the extension period was without compensation, it did permit completion of the full range of desired and proposed activities. Major changes made in the project's scheduled activities included delay of ten days in submitting the Preliminary Report, postponement of two-thirds of the site visits beyond the original project period, allocation of more to include ten data reports (late in receipt by the project) that otherwise would not have been included, and delay of the Final Report for seventy-five days.

Handling the budget. Budget management was facilitated by supervision of and bookkeeping in the University's Office of General Research. The experienced personnel there handled these activities efficiently, thus limiting the necessity of project staff keeping final and official budget records. The OE monitor also offered helpful guidance when questions arose about possible changes in or interpretations of guidelines for project expenditures. The project ended with a minor but tangible balance. Except for the director, project personnel did not have to devote any attention to budget.

Coordinating project activities. Several elements of activity coordination in conducting the study have already been referred to. One additional point is noted here. The judgment of project management is that it is probably not feasible to involve more than four professional personnel in an analysis and interpretation phase of a Targeted Communication Study. OE guidelines limit total professional and semi-professional personnel time on federal funds to a maximum equivalent to one full-time person for one year. Splitting this time among several persons brings a greater variety of talent to bear on project performance but reaches a point of diminishing returns beyond involvement of four persons, it is believed. Even though local contribution provided additional fifty percent time for professional personnel, each individual was allocated only minor (three-eights) time for project effort. Fewer individuals would have had proportionately more time scheduled for the project.

Evaluating the Project

Project evaluation was accomplished in three ways. On-going evaluation was done in-house by the staff, including research assistants. Several of the staff meetings devoted discussion time to the question, "Where do we stand?" and "How are we doing?". While no formal and complete written record was made of these and other in-house evaluations, the latter are regarded as having contributed considerably to the progress of the study.

A second source of evaluation was that contributed by the Targeted Audience Representatives and the OE monitor meeting with the project staff at about the mid-point of the project period. Their reactions were particularly valuable in shaping the organization, approach, and content emphases of the project Report as well as some other then-future aspects of the project.

The other major type of evaluation was supplied by outside evaluators. Of the three recommended agencies identified in the proposal, one was judged most appropriate particularly because of its full concern for dissemination and implementation of educational change. Early in the fall the director of that agency was contacted and it was arranged for him and another person there to perform the outside evaluation. Unfortunately, by the time the Preliminary Report was submitted that agency's director had decided to leave his location for another position to begin in a few weeks. It was mutually agreed that another person at the agency would replace him on the two-man evaluation team.

Meanwhile copies of the proposal and the Preliminary Report had been furnished the outside evaluators. As soon as they became available a few weeks later, copies of the first several site recommendation drafts were sent the evaluators. They were asked to and agreed to proceed with the evaluation on this basis. Their report was submitted, as planned in the project proposal, directly to the grant agency. Except to answer a very few questions about the general objectives and nature of the project, the staff were not requested to furnish anything else to the evaluators.

Conclusion

It is hoped that this recount of some project events and reactions to them may be of some interest to others. Seemingly most pertinent are the Research Analysis and Utilization Branch of the Bureau of Research in the U.S. Office of Education, projects engaged in other initial (Phase One) Targeted Communication Studies, individuals and groups contemplating submission of proposals for such activity, and others interested in educational dissemination.